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A dimensional investigation of self-other orientations of preschool age boys and girls.

Donald Patrick Flammer
University of Massachusetts Amherst

A DIMENSIONAL INVESTIGATION OF SELF-OTHER ORIENTATIONS OF PRESCHOOL AGE BOYS AND GIRLS

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Donald Patrick Flammer

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By

Donald Patrick Flammer

Approved as to style and content by:

(Chairman of Committee)

(Head of Department)

(Member)

(Member)

(Member)

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Recent investigations conducted at Harvard University by Bruner, Kagan, and White, as reported by Pines (1969), emphasize the importance of studying cognitive and personality patterns of development during the preschool years. Their findings have demonstrated that many intellectual, emotional and social skills are quite well-developed before the average child reaches the first grade. The preschool period contains critical years for personality development, a time during which many characteristics of paramount importance are established or modified (Mussen, Conger and Kagan, 1969). Consequently, a thorough understanding of human development is incomplete unless intellectual and personality variables are observed within the context that they initially begin to develop, i.e. the family environment.

One important personality variable of much psychological importance, influencing both present and future behavior, is the individual's conception of himself in relation to others. The development of a favorable self concept is essential to continued personal happiness and effective social participation. The child's basic conception of himself and his relations with others strongly influences his behavioral patterns and overall adjustment. There is much information indicating that self concept development is indeed greatly affected by the family experiences during childhood (McCandless, 1967). Yet, there have been relatively few studies concerned with the concomitants of the beginning self concept, or how various familial factors con-

tribute to positive self concept development.

Since the self concept is assumed to be an important agent for the organization of perceptions, the assimilation of experiences and the determinants of behavior, a greater comprehension of how early family experiences differentially influence the preschool child's conception of himself and his relations with others is of both theoretical and practical importance. The purpose of the present investigation is to continue the exploration of the concomitants of self concept development during the critical preschool years. Specifically, the present study seeks to determine the degree to which selected aspects of the parent-child relationship (Perceived Dominance; Parental Warmth; Parental Encouragement of Independence, Self-Reliance) and the parent-parent relationship (Dominance; Conflict) function as antecedents of three components of the preschool child's self concept: Esteem, Power, Identification.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Several writers (Wylie, 1961; Rosenberg, 1965; Coopersmith, 1967) have attempted to summarize the effect of various child rearing attitudes and practices upon the individual's perception of his self worth. These investigators, focusing as they did upon the self-report responses of pre-adolescents and adolescents, leave unanswered many questions concerning the beginnings of differential self conceptions and the precise role of the parents' in establishing the basic foundation upon which the child learns to evaluate himself and others. While it is generally agreed that peers and teachers do indeed affect the individual's self concept, most observers indicate that for the majority of children the family experience is of greater, more lasting importance in determining perceptions of the self and others (Swift, 1964). Consequently, investigations of the antecedents of the aspects of the self concept have now begun to focus upon the early childhood years, the period of greatest significance for personality development and parental influence.

Various personality theorists (Adler, 1927; Fromm, 1947; Horney, 1945; Sullivan, 1953) have been particularly attentive to the scope of self concept development. While each theorist focuses upon different aspects of the social environment in discussing the origins and importance of the self concept, there is general agreement that the major focus of attention should be on interpersonal processes. More specifically, Rosenberg (1963) concludes that, as an antecedent of the

self concept, parental attention and concern is much more significantly related to positive self concept development than are variables of the broader social context. Sullivan (1953) considers the child's self-evaluation to be profoundly influenced by "significant others", particularly the parents. He notes that the child's self-system develops through a process of reflected appraisals, as the child is appraised by his parents so he appraises himself. This view has received empirical support from Khon, 1961, and Ausubel, 1958, who have demonstrated a correspondence between a child's self-evaluation and the way in which he is regarded by his parents. These authors speculate that the self concept develops according to the pattern of the parents' rewards and punishments. Jersild's (1968) view is similar but even more inclusive. He contends that the impact that the parents have on the child's self concept depends not only on what they actually think, feel or do, but also on the child's perception of what they think, feel or do.

As noted previously, however, studies of those factors related to self concept development have been rather limited. Some recent efforts focusing on variables associated with the self concept during childhood years have proven to be quite enlightening. Giuliana (1968) demonstrated a positive relationship between self concept and reading readiness at the kindergarten level. Similarly, Storey (1967) found those children who were classified as "accelerated" in terms of reading readiness could be discriminated from children classified as decelerated on the basis of self concept factors. Ozehosky (1967) investigated the relationship between children's self concept in

kindergarten. He concluded: "the results of the investigation demonstrated that the self concept does have functional utility at the kindergarten level...the teacher's ratings futhermore indicated a definite congruence between their perceptions of children's self concept as actually measured by a non-verbal measure of self concept" (p. 1308).

Other recent investigations (Rubin, 1968; Lentz, 1969; Sparling, 1968; Williams, 1969; Taylor, 1967; Voss, 1967) have also demonstrated success in effectively measuring and exploring some of the basic aspects of the self concept in young children. These writers, also, found a non-verbal measure of the self concept to be most effective with young children. And Perkins (1958) has indicated that teacher's perceptions of children's self concepts are significantly related to the children's expressed or measured self concepts. In summary, the child's self concept does seem to be related to a number of important factors.

McCandless (1967) reports that children with poor self concepts are more anxious, less well-adjusted, less popular, less effective in groups, and more defensive than their counterparts who have a good self concept. Parental attitudes and practices were seen as important determinants for shaping the self concept.

Self-Other Orientations

Several definitions of self concept have been postulated. Generally, most writers agree that the self concept is not a unitary variable, but rather a construct which incorporates several relevant fac-

tors. For example, McCandless (1967) sees the self concept comprised of complex expectancies, made up of many facets, with each facet differing in importance from the others. Specifically, he reports: "the self concept may be thought of as a set of expectancies, plus evaluations of the areas or behaviors with reference to which these expectancies are held" (p. 255). Peters (1969) reviewed several definitions of self concept and suggests the following formulation: "Self concept is a psychological construct used to describe a person's private perception of himself and of his perceptions of his relationship to others in the environment. This self concept includes three components: perceptual..., conceptual..., and attitudinal..." (p. 1792).

The present investigation, also, assumes a dimensional view of the self concept. Operationally, the personal feelings about oneself are presumed to evolve in the context of a myriad of associations with objects, persons, and other concepts. In view of the inherently social nature of man, it can be further assumed that the self is primarily defined in relation to persons, particularly significant others. In this context, the overall self concept is most accurately described as the "perception of self in relation to significant others" (Ziller, Long, Ramana and Reddy, 1967, p. 317).

This Self-Social theory of personality (Ziller, 1969) assumes that a self identity is derived from interpersonal experiences. Similarities and contrasts with other people in the immediate social environment are considered necessary for a clear conception of the self. Since the individual's orientations to the environment are largely

social, self-other conceptions may be important mediating agents for perceptions. It can, therefore, be suggested that social stimuli are interpreted and given personal meaning on the basis of a set of topological schemata consisting of self-other configurations. The self concept can thus be seen as a set or constellation of constructs involving other persons. It evolves from a cumulative series of associations involving searches for similarities and contrasts with other persons (Long, Henderson, and Ziller, 1969).

"In the cognitive theory proposed here, it is assumed that social adaptation is mediated through self-social constructs. It is proposed that social stimuli are screened and translated into personal meaning through crude topological representations of the self in relation to significant others. (Social Stimuli--Self-Social Constructs--Response)" (Ziller, 1969 p. 2). Based upon this formulation of the self concept, there are a wide variety of topological representations of self in relation to others which are possible. Research reported by the author has led to the development of ten components of the overall self concept; these are the self-other orientations of: self esteem, social interest, self centrality, complexity, majority identification, identification, power, marginality, inclusion, and openness. The majority of these components, however, are meaningful only after the child has been able to gain sufficient experience in group relations.

During the preschool period, parents are typically the only significant others available to the child. Accordingly, many research programs have testified to the significant influence of paren-

tal factors on child personality (Golin, 1969). It thus appears likely that self-social orientations derived from early parental influence form the basis from which later self-other comparisons are made.

An investigation of these early parent-dominated self-social concepts and their concomitants is, therefore, considered to be rather important for a more complete understanding of the adult self concept. Specifically, the evolving components of a self concept which seem most appropriate and crucial during the preschool years include: (1) Esteem, (2) Identification, and (3) Power. These components are assumed to be part of an integral system and represent dimensions on which the preschool child's self as a social object may be described.

Dependent Variables

Esteem. Coopersmith (1967) refers to self esteem as a "personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself". Similarly, Long, Henderson and Ziller (1968) indicate: "self-esteem is defined as the value or importance attributed to the self in comparison with others". And whereas, "the self concept is a mediating agent between the organism and the environment, self-esteem is that component of the self-system which is associated with the consistency of the organism's response to the environment" (Mossman and Ziller, 1968). There is no doubt that the concept of esteem evolves within a social frame of reference.

Some understanding of the complex social nature of the self esteem construct is provided by Berger's (1968) factor analytic investigation. His analysis of self-esteem data derived five factors

which were readily interpretable: Communicative Propensity-- a propensity to interact with strangers, Other-Anxiety-- anxiety about others' feelings toward the self, Negative Self Evaluation-- an individual's negative evaluation of himself, Positive Self Evaluation-- an individual's positive evaluation of himself, and Other-Certainty-- the certainty one has about interpersonal relationships. Also of importance, Berger's findings of definite sex differences with regards to self-esteem suggested that the sources of self evaluation for males and females are somewhat different. Sex differences with regard to self-esteem were also reported by Reese (1961) who found that, at the elementary school level, girls have higher self-esteem scores than boys; and children, regardless of sex, who liked others also liked themselves.

The importance of self-esteem for social adjustment has been demonstrated by several investigators. Rosenberg (1965) has shown that high school students with low self-esteem tend to be more distressed by negative evaluations from others, and have more difficulty meeting new friends than those students high in self-esteem. Coopersmith's (1967) comprehensive investigation of the antecedent conditions and personal characteristics associated with different levels of self-esteem in pre-adolescent males revealed the following: The basic antecedents of self-esteem appeared to be (1) a total or near total acceptance of the children by their parents (2) clearly defined and enforced limits within the family (3) the respect and latitude for individual action that exist within the defined limits. Parents of

high self esteem children were seen as being active, poised and relatively self assured individuals who recognize the significance of child rearing and believe in their ability to carry out the responsibilities it entails. These parents appeared to be on fairly good terms with one another and have established clear-cut lines of authority and responsibility. The mothers of the boys high in self-esteem were more accepting of their children and tended to express their acceptance through manifestations of concern, affection and close rapport. These mothers were also more likely to enforce established rules carefully and consistently, using reward as the preferred mode of affecting behavior.

Overall, the high self-esteem family was notable for its high level of activity, strong minded parents dealing with independent, assertive children, stricter enforcement of more stringent demands, and greater opportunity for open dissent and agreement.

The pre-adolescent boys high in self-esteem, in contrast with those low in self esteem, were seen to manifest greater independence, exploratory behaviors and assertion of their rights; the low self-esteem boys tended to be obedient, conforming and passive. Also, high self-esteem subjects manifested lower levels of anxiety, dealt with anxiety better, had better social relations and were less affected or distracted by personal difficulties. Whereas the low self-esteem subjects felt themselves to be powerless, isolated, unloved, socially incompetent, and tended to withdraw and become passive and anxious. Self-esteem has also been found to be positively related to

academic achievement, low self-esteem to learning difficulties (Andrews, 1966).

Summarizing several recent empirical studies, Ziller, Hagey, Smith and Long (1969) report that high self-esteem in children and adults was found to be associated with social acceptance, social participation, socioeconomic status, identification with parents, consistency of social behavior, the normal as compared with the neurotic, and the normal adolescent as compared with the institutionalized behavior-problem adolescent.

The findings reported by Coopersmith (1967), Rosenberg (1965) and Swift (1964) indicate that the individual's level of self-esteem is most directly influenced by parents and their patterns of attitudes and behaviors. Teacher and peer influences appear to have minimal impact once the child's basic self-other orientations are stabilized by means of the parent-child interaction.

In summary, therefore, past research with older children would indicate that the establishment of a high level of self-esteem in children is associated with a family environment characterized by established, unambiguous lines of decision-making with a tendency towards the father as being the dominant, decision-making parent. For girls, a warm, accepting relationship with the mother would be seen as basic for the enhancement of esteem. High self-esteem children of both sexes seem also to come from homes where independent, self-reliant behaviors are rewarded and encouraged.

Identification. The concept of identification has been studied

within the context of many theoretical frameworks. Psychoanalytic theories of development postulate that the introjection of the generalized other is the basis of social development and self concept development. Specifically, relationships to parents and siblings in the earliest years form the nucleus for an individual's sense of identity. Introjection of the parents to form the superego plays a large part in both processes. A person's self-esteem and ego identity are determined in a large measure by these processes. Where relationships with parents are basically good, ego identity will generally develop without problems. However, when they are not, the sense of identity can be vague, insecure, inacceptable, or otherwise disordered (Saul and Warner, 1967). Parsons (1955) describes identification as the placement of the self in a "we" category with the other person. Heider (1958) suggests that when a person indicates that two objects "belong together" it may be assumed that a concept relates them. Thus placing the self in close proximity to the other person is assumed to indicate a high degree of identification with him or her. A similar concept is also advocated by Kuethe (1962) who has successfully operationalized the notion of identification by the use of the felt-figures-technique.

More directly, however, identification may be interpreted as modeling behavior. Through the selection of an appropriate model of human behavior and through the process of imitation, socialization is facilitated. During the preschool years, parents serve as the primary models in the process of socialization, and the retardation of iden-

tification is usually assumed to retard the socialization process (Ziller, 1969).

Identification is considered to be a basic process in the total personality and social development of the child. Whether a child is born a boy or a girl is perhaps the single most important determinant of personality characteristics (Lidz, 1968), for it is well-documented that achievement of a firm identity as a member of one's own sex is basic to overall emotional stability and the eventual development of an integrated positive self concept. The child as young as four is already well aware of the concepts of maleness and femaleness and the rewards inherent in the process of identification with his or her parents (Stone and Church, 1968). For by means of identification with a strong parent, the child is able to incorporate in himself the parent's strength and adequacy which he can model for himself. Positive identification, then, can be a very important source of security for the preschool child. On the other hand, identification with a weak parent or weak identification with parents can cause the child to feel insecure and retard the development of a positive self concept. Through identification with parents, the young, dependent child begins to imitate parental behaviors, thereby vicariously possessing the strength, adequacy and self-assurance of the parents, while also learning effective social skills designed to increase the child's competence and independence. So, as parental identification is strengthened, so too is the development of a positive self image (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan, 1969).

Identification with the same-sex parent is generally thought to be of significant importance in the development of a positive social-emotional life style (Kagan, 1964). The degree to which a child identifies with a particular parent appears to be a function of that parent's nurturance, competence, dominance and overall power (Heilbrun, 1964; Maccoby, 1961; Bandura and Walters, 1963; McCandless, 1967; Mussen and Rutherford, 1963). That is, the child tends to identify with a parent if he or she perceives the parent to be both nurturant and powerful. Yet, some specific differences exist in the identification patterns of boys and girls. Boys will identify with their fathers if they are perceived as being powerful and nurturant. For girls, the dimension of power would seem to be an important but less significant antecedent of identification than nurturance and warmth (Livson, 1966).

Ideally, in order to foster a stable, culturally-approved sex role and a positive, integrated self concept, a situation in which the same-sex parent is seen as warm and powerful would seem to be most advantageous, especially for boys. Of course, when both parents are seen as highly warm and powerful, the boy or girl would identify with both of them. In most instances, however, the child typically perceives greater similarity to the same-sex parent and tends to identify more strongly with this parent.

A comprehensive survey of research relating to identification patterns observed in young children has been provided by McCandless (1967). Generally, it seems likely that identification with the same-sex parent is not as significant for girls as it appears to be for

boys. During the preschool years, boys probably love their mothers best but usually identify most strongly with the father. Investigations cited by McCandless clearly indicate that boys tend to identify with strength, strength being defined as a combination of power and nurturance, warmth. On the other hand, preschool girls frequently state that they like their fathers more than their mothers. Yet identification with the mother takes place. Mothers usually exert more control over girls and discipline them more than they do their sons. However, girls often maintain a fairly strong identification with the father, possibly an indication that clear identification with the father is more important for the boy's adjustment and self concept development than is identification with the mother for the girl. Data explaining this situation remain scarce.

In conclusion McCandless notes: "the process of identification appears to be more complex for girls than for boys. Girls who are strongly identified with their mothers do not seem to be superior in adjustment to girls who are less identified, although this relationship does not hold true for boys. As for boys, however, some cross-identification with the parent of the opposite sex appears to be desirable; girls may have to support themselves...The lack of clear information about identification for girls may be due to the fact that in our culture, the feminine role is less highly regarded than the masculine--hence, mothers may reject this role and provide unclear models for their daughters. Also, strong cross-identification with the reality anchored, instrumental father seems necessary for girls" (p. 472).

It is Biller's (1969) contention that a healthy father identification for a daughter consists of understanding and empathizing with the father rather than acting masculine or wanting to be like him. "When the father plays an active and competent masculine role, his daughter is more likely to imitate his non-sex-typed positive attributes and be more adaptable and less narrow in her behavior repetoire than when he is unmasculine and/or aloof. The probability of a girl rejecting her femininity and imitating the father's masculinity seems high only if her mother is unable to express warmth, acceptance and nurturance toward her" (p. 16).

The normal process, therefore, includes identification with both parents with a slightly greater emphasis on the same-sex parent, especially for boys. It seems desirable that parents be warm, nurturant, competent, noncompetive with one another, and possess at least a moderate degree of dominance in order to facilitate the positive identification process. Since an individual's self concept is indeed infused with sexual components, it seems necessary for children to have the benefit of internalized dispositions that result from a close and intimate interaction with a competent and warm parent of the same sex. The opposite sex parent seems an equally important participant in this process. Through the personification of a misinterpreted role, father or mother can debilitate the same-sex- parent-child relationship and undermine the child's self-identity (Deitz, 1969). In particular, the lack of identification with the father has been shown to hamper the social poise and self-assertion of the child, of whatever sex (Meerlôo, 1968).

Power. Power of the self in relation to others is assumed to be a conception of the self as consistently superior, equal, or inferior to the other (Long Henderson and Ziller, 1968). This construct derives from Adler's concept of "feelings of inferiority". A hierarchial structuring of the self with regard to the authority figure may be interpreted as a search for a permanent and reliable self-social position without due regard for objective information. Relationships with others in which the self is either subordinate or superordinate offer a simple, potent structure to social relations which minimizes the necessity of continual self-other comparisons. Egalitarian relationships, on the other hand, include a higher probability of social comparisons, on a variety of dimensions, thereby, exposing the self to continuous pressures for re-evaluation (Ziller, 1969).

During childhood, the child's conception of his "power" is assumed to be defined in regards to his specific relations with his parents. In general, of course, children can be expected to perceive themselves as less powerful than their parents. Yet, those children who are allowed the greatest degree of power in the family environment would seem to come from nurturant, warm homes in which competence and independence are encouraged (Baumrind, 1967). These children have been shown to be more socialized, cooperative and emotionally stable than those children placed in a position of little importance in the home. Just the opposite of parents who permit their child to possess at least moderate power are submissive parents, who permit their child to dominate the home. These latter children have been characterized as re-

bellious and irresponsible (Hurlock, 1964).

In summary, therefore, self concept seems to be a multidimensional construct composed of a variety of related, yet independent, self-other orientations. During the preschool period, the evolving components of a self concept which seem most appropriate and crucial include: Esteem, Identification and Power. These dimensions are derived from early parent-child and parent-parent relationships and form the basis from which later self-other comparisons are made.

Independent Variables

Sex Role. A comprehensive assessment of factors associated with children's self-social orientations must necessarily consider the sex of those children under investigation. Several writers presenting their views in Maccoby (1966) report that sex differences in aspects of intellectual, personality, and social development are quite apparent during the early childhood years. Similarly, Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1969) assert: "During the preschool years, sex-typing figures prominently in the socialization of the child. Most parents pay considerable attention to the sex-appropriateness of the child's behavior, rewarding responses that are appropriate to his sex and discouraging those that are not... The basic components of sex-typing are undoubtedly acquired at home, largely through identification with, and imitation of, the parent of the same sex" (p. 360-361).

By and large, most girls are aware of the approved sex role for their sex by the time they are four or five years old; boys become aware of their approved sex role somewhat earlier because of the great-

er social and cultural pressures put on them to be manly. And during the preschool years, boys appear to be more clearly aware of what it means to be masculine than girls are of what it means to be feminine. The existence of sex-related differences in the structure of childhood personality has been recently verified by several researchers (Abbott, 1968; Baker, 1968; Goldberg and Lewis, 1969; and Vroegh, 1968, 1970). Using 1200 first grade children as subjects, Baker (1968) found the personality factors of assertiveness and shyness to be more important for males than females, while sociability and sensitivity were more important for females. Similar results with sixth grade children were reported by Shortell and Biller (1970). Tulkin, Muller, and Conn (1969) investigated the "need for approval" among elementary school pupils in an attempt to analyze differences between the sexes. Their findings showed that "need for approval" has an opposite relationship with "popularity" for male and female students. It appears that low "need for approval" females and high "need for approval" males violate their cultural sex role patterns and are therefore rejected by their peers.

The existence of important sex role differences with regards to personality structure at the age of one year has been attested to by Goldberg and Lewis (1969). Their observations of the play behaviors of 13 month old boys and girls revealed the following differences: Boys were more active and vigourous, independent, exploratory and used gross motor activity. Girls were more dependent, quieter, easily frustrated and spent more time in play involving fine coordination. An analysis of the parent-child interactions during these play session suggests,

that even at this early age, parents reinforce sex-appropriate behaviors which the child soon learns. A study by Fagot (1968) showed that sex-appropriate behaviors were present from at least the age of three. And, although teachers tend to reinforce feminine type behaviors more than masculine behaviors and reinforced boys but not girls when they performed opposite sexed behaviors, sex appropriate behaviors are maintained throughout the nursery school years.

Several investigations of the correlates of masculinity and femininity (Vroegh, 1968, 1970) during various developmental periods indicate that boys are best described in terms of variables denoting extraversion and competence, with the early years being a time during which masculinity is related to self development and achieving competence within one's self. Among the girls, femininity proved most related to the correlates of patience, introversion, naivete, outgoingness, confidence, abstract thinking and conscientiousness. However, the correlates related to masculinity were much more evident than those pertinent to femininity. Vroegh (1970) concludes: "The greater specificity of the correlates of masculinity than feminity is not surprising in light of our knowledge of the greater pressure placed upon boys than girls to achieve appropriate gender identity... the elusive nature of these concepts demands further investigation. We should be prepared to find, however, that masculinity and femininity are complex concepts" (p. 11-12). As this study indicates, it appears that a boy's masculinity is much more an integral part of his self-social orientation than is a girl's femininity.

The important role of the parents in determining these early sex differences has been emphasized by Biller and Borstelman (1967), Biller and Weiss (1969), Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1968), and Mischel (1966). Likewise Auerbach's (1968) investigation of the antecedents of masculinity and femininity in nursery school children points out the importance of the parent-child interaction. This writer discovered that the dimension of 'control' appears to be the critical one used by most parents on both boys and girls to facilitate sex-typing, and since men are generally more powerful than women, they were observed to have more impact on the sex-typing of their children than the women. A related study shows mothers to be significantly more warm, permissive, less dominating and less punitive toward their sons than their daughters (Eckhoff, Gauslaa, and Baldwin, 1961).

Most research endeavors concerning sex-related differences in personality and self concept development have considered masculinity and femininity to be unidimensional concepts. However, several writers (Biller and Borstelman, 1967; Kagan, 1964; Ward, 1969; Abbott, 1969; Lynn, 1959) have attempted to conceptualize different aspects of sex role. Abbott's (1969) factor analytic study supporting a multi-dimensional approach to masculinity and femininity described the following factors. Factors for males were: (1) Tough, Self-assertive, Venturous (2) Impersonal, Self-sufficient (3) Enterprising, Realistic. Factors for females were: (1) Self-concerned, Timid (2) Insecure, Dependent (3) Considerate of others (4) Interests. The factor structure supported the hypothesis that masculinity and femininity consist of more than one underlying psychological construct. Further, no clear-cut one-

to-one correspondence between the constructs identified for males and for females was indicated. Lynn (1959) discussed three different but related aspects of sex role development: sex role orientation, sex role preference and sex role adoption. Sex role preference "refers to the desire to adopt the behavior associated with one sex or the other, or the perception of such behavior as more preferable". Sex role adoption "refers to the actual overt behavior of the individual" relative to a given sex role. Sex role orientation refers to "the responses characteristic of such a role."

As outlined by Biller and Borstelman (1967), an individual's sex role preference (P) refers to his relative desire to adhere to the cultural prescriptions and proscriptions of the masculine or feminine role. The concept involves a preferential set towards symbols or representations of sex role that are socially defined. Ths basic task for the child is to learn to evaluate positively such things as sex-appropriate toys, activities and interests. The initial development of sex role preference seems to take place at a time preceding the nursery school years. Discrimination would therefore appear to be significantly related to familial factors. Specifically, Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1968) report that it is the father who plays the more critical role in the development of the children's (boys and girls) sex role preference. The role of the parents in shaping sex role preference has also been discussed by Ward (1968), who notes also that girls are generally allowed more latitude in sex role preference than are boys.

Sex role adoption (A) refers to a complex pattern of publicly observable, ongoing behavior, often taking place in the framework of social interaction. It relates to how masculine or feminine members of society view one's behavior. In contrast to sex role preference, sex role adoption seems a function of more general behavioral imitation or parental identification, involving minimal intentional awareness, whereas sex role preference clearly involves cognitive choice. A particularly important period for the development of sex role adoption appears to be the preschool years when parents are encouraging sex-appropriate behaviors. Since the development of sex role adoption necessarily involves the imitation of a sex-appropriate model, the parent, it would appear that the child's degree of identification with that parent is of critical importance. Also, since our society tends to view "masculine" behaviors in highly positive terms, it would be expected that both boys and girls who exhibit a high level of masculine behaviors will have greater esteem than their less masculine counterparts.

Sex role orientation (O) may be defined as one facet of the way an individual basically views himself or herself in terms of maleness and/or femaleness. It is an underlying, and not necessarily conscious, perception of the maleness or femaleness of the self. The period between eighteen months and three years appears particularly important in the child's discriminative awareness of himself as a male or a female and the evaluation of himself or herself positively in this regard. Sex role orientation seems relatively resistant to change and

appears to be particularly influenced by early parent-child relations. The development of gender identity (orientation), or the mature feeling and understanding of masculinity or femininity, is one aspect of global identity and is established through interaction between the biological substrate and the social experience each individual encounters. Cultural cues received from the parents in childhood develop core identity (Gershman, 1968). For this reason, realizing the cultural emphasis on masculinity, it seems apparent that a boy's level of sex role orientation is an important determinant of his overall feeling of worthiness or esteem.

By and large, it would be expected that these three sex role aspects are generally congruent. Also, an appropriate sex role orientation facilitates the child's development of an appropriate sex role preference and sex role adoption. However, in view of the frequent examples of inconsistent child-rearing practices during the early childhood years, it appears quite likely that a child's sex role preference and/or sex role adoption may differ from his basic sex role orientation. Even where these sex role aspects are generally congruent, there may be relative differences in the strength of one aspect over the other. How each sex role aspect for boys and for girls is related to the child's esteem, identification and power is an important goal of the present study.

Previous findings (reviewed by Biller and Borstelman, 1967; Biller and Weiss, 1969) suggest that such factors as role structure in the family, encouragement of sex-appropriate behaviors and parental atti-

tudes of warmth and acceptance are important in sex role development. However, previous research with the exception of studies by Biller (1968) and Ward (1969) has not been concerned with the process of sex role development or how various factors relate to different aspects of sex role.

In his study of the antecedents of sex role development in kindergarten age boys, Biller (1968) reported that the three aspects of sex role are indeed independent. Also, his results show that with regards to masculine development, the degree to which the boy views his father as dominant affects all aspects of his sex role development, but in terms of strength of relationship the order is orientation, preference and adoption. The boy's overall masculinity seemed most facilitated when his father was dominant and also allowed and encouraged the boy to be somewhat dominant (gave the boy "power"). Also a high level of maternal encouragement was seen as having a facilitating effect on sex role preference. In summary, the author reports: "A multi-aspect conception of masculine development was strongly supported,... and as one goes from orientation to preference to adoption, familial variables seem to have less influence and other variables increasingly seem to need to be taken into account".

Ward's (1969) assessment of the process of sex role development for boys and girls in kindergarten, first and second grade revealed the following dynamics: Sex role preferences are established for both sexes by the age of five; identification occurs earlier for girls than for boys; preference precedes adoption for both sexes; the three mea-

sures of sex role development used were independent. Ward asserts, "An understanding of sex role development appears to be of vital importance to an understanding of personality" (p. 168).

In summary, there is evidence that sex differences in aspects of personality and social development are quite apparent during the early childhood years. Consequently, any investigation of child development must necessarily consider the sex of the children under consideration. However, masculinity and femininity do not appear to be unidimensional concepts. Instead, sex role seems to be a multidimensional variable comprised of sex role orientation - the way an individual basically views the self in terms of genderness; sex role adoption - how masculine or feminine members of society view one's behavior; and sex role preference - the desire to adopt the behavior associated with one sex or the other.

The degree to which each sex role aspect, for boys and for girls, was related to the self-other orientations of esteem, identification and power was assessed in the present investigation.

Parent-Child Relations. In this section, additional studies concerning the impact of parent-child relations on the development of self-social concepts in children will be considered.

As noted previously, Coopersmith (1967) found the prime antecedents of self-esteem in preadolescent boys to be parental warmth and acceptance, clearly defined and enforced patterns of authority, and respect for the boy's right to be assertive within limits. Other studies reported by Clausen (1966) find that husbands and wives often

share in much of the family decision making, and that when one partner is the more dominant, it is more often the husband. In families where the father is indeed seen as more dominant, there is a greater tendency for boys to identify with the father, to regard positively the male role, and to be rated better adjusted, especially if the father is also warm and nurturant (Hetherington, 1965). Similarly, Hetherington and Frankie (1967) report that parental warmth and dominance were salient variables in parental identification for both boys and girls; with parental dominance being more important for imitation for boys while maternal warmth appears most effective for girls. On the other hand, maternal dominance is often a source of maladjustment and delinquency, especially for boys (Lidz, 1969).

The child's perception of parental behaviors has much bearing on the way in which he relates to the parent and to others. Generally, father is seen as more fear arousing, more competent, and more punitive than mother. Mother is seen as nicer and more nurturant. Yet, boys and girls generally choose the same-sex parent as the model they wish to emulate and who they like the best, and girls seem to perceive the father with much more ambivalence than do boys (Kagan and Lemkin, 1960). Similar findings were reported by Eisenberg, Henderson, Kuhlman, and Hill (1967), who indicate that both sexes perceive father as more punitive and more instrumentally nurturant than mother, and mothers as more affectionately nurturant. Also, it was found that the attribution of a characteristic to a parent was generalized to adults of the same sex. Interpretations concerning children's perceptions of parental be-

havior must be limited however, since Goldin's (1969) analysis of children's reports of parent behaviors indicates that these reports tend to be different for mother-report and father-report and to be related clearly to the sex, social class, and behavior of the children.

Although parental dominance appears to facilitate self concept development, it is important to note, of course, that extreme restriction and parental dominance generally deny autonomy to the child, retarding the development of positive self-social concepts. The restrictive, controlling parents tend to have passive, dependent children. The preschool period seems especially important for the development of independence and autonomy, especially for boys, since this period presents the parents with somewhat of a crisis situation, for it is at this time during which the child is in transition to greater independence, beginning to go to school. The fact that many parents do not highly value child independence and nondependence has been pointed out by Emmerich (1969).

In young children, the qualities of competence, esteem, independence, affiliation, and self-reliance appear to be fostered by warm, accepting home environments in which independent actions, decision making, and self-reliance are encouraged and reinforced (Baumrind, 1967). Overall, independence granting and verbal give and take, on the one hand, and enforced demands, on the other, are associated with stable, assertive behavior in the child (Baumrind and Black, 1967).

The degree to which parents encourage assertive, self-reliant behaviors has also been identified as a factor conductive to positive

social-emotional growth (Becker, 1964). Children described as competent have a more positive image of themselves and greater overall social adjustment. Parents of independent, self-reliant children (when compared to parents of dependent children) treat their preschoolers more as children and less as adults. These parents are more permissive and less restrictive, warmer and less hostile, and more competent than are the parents of dependent children (Clapp, 1968). Children of both sexes, especially the boys, who are low in dependency tend to perceive both parents as being strong persons (Mueller, 1966); whereas parental indifference is closely associated with a generally poor self concept. In fact, extreme parental indifference is more closely associated with a poor self-image than are punitive parental reactions, possibly because even punitive reactions show the child that he is important to someone (Rosenberg, 1963). It is generally assumed, however, that independence, self-reliance and a positive self-image are more cogent aspects of a boy's personality development, and as such one would expect that the boys whose parents encourage assertion and self-reliance will be those who have the higher degree of esteem, power and parental identification.

Other investigators (McCandless, 1967; Mussen and Distler, 1959; Mussen, Conger and Kagan, 1969) also report that parental dominance, warmth, and encouragement of independence and self-reliance are indeed important antecedent variables of the child's personality and social development.

In brief, there is much evidence indicating that child rearing

practices and early parent-child relationships are extremely important determinants of the child's personality and social development. Among the specific parent-child relationship variables identified as important antecedents of self concept development are: the child's perception of parental dominance patterns; the degree of warmth each parent conveys to the child; and the degree to which each parent encourages his child to be independent, self-reliant.

The precise role of each of these variables in contributing to the child's self-other orientations of esteem, identification and power was assessed in the present study.

Parent-Parent Relations. In recent years there has been increased interest concerning the role of family interaction patterns as a major determinant of pathological behavior syndromes (Boszormenyi-Nagy and Framo, 1965; Ackerman, Beatman and Sherman, 1967; Satir, 1964; DuHamel and Jarmon, 1969; Murrell and Stachowiak, 1967; Handel, 1966; Higgins, Peterson and Dolby, 1969). There is ever increasing evidence that personality and social development of children is greatly influenced, not only by the specific parent-child relationship, but also by the parent-parent relationship. It is therefore to be anticipated that variables related to the parent-parent pattern of relations will also be of significant importance as antecedents of the preschool child's self-social concepts.

Some information concerning the significance of these variables in the personality and social development of children has been provided by Hetherington and Frankie (1967). These writers report that

among boys, the tendency to identify with a dominant father appears to override the effect of a father's degree of warmth or the degree of parental conflict, whereas maternal warmth is the most salient factor for girls. However, under high parental conflict, with both parents exhibiting minimal warmth, both boys and girls tend to imitate the dominant parent regardless of sex.

Maxwell (1967) points out that children whose family relations are warm and accepting have more positive self concepts than those who experience hostility and conflict in their intra-familial relations. Similarly, Lidz (1969) asserts, "The transactions between the parents enter into the child's self concept and feelings of self-esteem. The boy whose father is loved and admired by his mother can gain a sense of worth in accordance with how he approximates the idealized father, and a girl can accept her femininity more readily when the mother is desired and esteemed by the father. The child also gains a feeling of the value of being a father or mother, a husband or wife, as well as of being male or female, from parental interactions" (p. 240).

In sum, this investigation considered the parent-parent variables of (1) dominance and (2) conflict (Farina, 1963; Becker and Iwakami, 1969; Cicchetti and Farina, 1967; Gassner and Murray, 1969).

Objectives. In brief, the focus of this study was on three components of the preschool child's self concept, the self-other orientations of: (1) Esteem - the value or importance attributed to the self in comparison with other children; (2) Identification - the closeness between the child and each parent; (3) Power - a conception of the self

as consistently superior, equal, or inferior to each parent.

Specifically, the present investigation sought to determine the degree to which the parent-child relationship variables of: (1) the child's perception of parental dominance patterns, (2) the degree of warmth each parent conveys to the child, (3) the degree to which each parent encourages his child to be independent, self-reliant; and the parent-parent relationship variables of (4) actual mother-father dominance patterns, (5) the degree of conflict between the parents; function as antecedents of the preschool child's esteem, identification, and power.

Also, in view of the evidence indicating important sex differences in the structure of childhood personality, this study analyzed separately the findings for the boys and for the girls. Masculinity and femininity were considered to be multidimensional variables comprised of three sex role aspects: (1) sex role orientation - the way the child basically viewed the self in terms of genderness, (2) sex role adoption - how masculine or feminine members of society view one's behavior, (3) sex role preference - the desire to adopt the behavior associated with one sex or the other. The degree of relationship between each sex role aspect and each self-other orientation, for boys and for girls, was also assessed in this study.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects used in this investigation were enrolled in nursery school classes for four and five year olds at five private preschools in the Amherst-Northampton, Massachusetts area. The total sample is comprised of 39 boys and 35 girls, from whom all the necessary data was collected. The sample can best be described as a "random" sample, representative of children in private nursery school classes.

The boys ranged in age from 3 years-5 months to 5 years-3 months, with a mean age of 4 years-5 months, and a SD of 6.0 months. The girls ranged in age from 3 years-10 months to 5 years-1 month, with a mean age of 4 years-7 months and a SD of 4.6 months.

An assessment of the children's intellectual level was obtained by administering Form A of the Peabody Picture Vocabularly Test (PPVT). The PPVT is a quick, convenient and non-verbal way of obtaining a reliable estimate of the child's IQ. Peabody PVT IQ scores for the boys ranged from 91 to 138, with a mean IQ of 113 and a SD of 9.70; the IQ scores for the girls ranged from 79 to 127, with a mean IQ of 110 and a SD of 10.17. The age and IQ data indicate that the two samples appear to be somewhat similar and readily comparable.

Parents of 26 of the boys and 19 of the girls were interviewed in their home. While numerous attempts were made to involve all of the children's parents in the interview, various reasons reduced the interviewed sample to 45. Most of the non-interviewed parents were away

for the summer on vacation; only the parents of two of the children refused to be interviewed when contacted.

Information concerning the children's socio-economic status was collected; but since the vast majority of the subjects came from middle and upper middle class homes, analysis of this data was not undertaken.

Procedure

Nursery schools were selected on the basis of size, travel distance, and on the availability of two teachers to make behavioral ratings. The investigation was described to the teachers as an assessment of preschool children's play activities.

Several hours were spent at each school getting acquainted with the children in order to facilitate an easy rapport between the experimenter and the children. Each class was told that the experimenter was interested in children and had some picture games to play and questions to ask. Children were seen individually for a period of 10 to 15 minutes for approxiamtely five sessions. At each school, sessions took place at the same time of day. Private and relatively quiet rooms away from school activities were available at all of the schools.

Assessment began with the aspects of sex role because of their game-like quality and the least structured, projective tasks were presented first. The children were not asked questions about their parents until the last session. After all data was collected from the children, the teachers were given rating scales and accompanying in-

structions, which were collected one week hence.

As soon as the data was collected from a school, the parents of the children tested were sent letters asking for their cooperation in the follow-up interview. These parents were then contacted by phone and an appointment made for the interview. All interviews with parents took place in their homes, usually during the evening.

By and large, different experimenters collected the child and parent sources of data, so as to keep data sources independent. This investigator conducted all parent interviews and only a few of the child interviews.

Measurement of Self-Other Orientations

A preschool form of the Children's Self-Social Constructs Test (CSSCT) (Long and Henderson, 1968; Long, Henderson and Ziller, 1967; Ziller, 1969) was used to measure appropriate aspects of the child's conception of himself and his relations with others, specifically his or her parents (see Appendix B). This measure was developed on the basis of two principles: (1) The tasks require the subject to relate himself to his social environment; (2) The tasks are primarily non-verbal in character, reducing the problem of social desirability. It should be noted that the point of view is that of the perceiver. The concepts and measures represent the child's organization of his life space. Essentially, the approach is phenomenological. That data concerning self-other orientation are subjective and are communicated by means of a pre-verbal language in the hopes of preserving the subject's point of view rather than imposing the investigator's orientation on

the subject (Ziller, 1969).

The appropriate tasks require the child to select and arrange symbols (circles) to represent his or her conception of him(her) self in relation to others. It is assumed that the child is able to communicate his self-social (parent) system symbolically, and that certain symbolic patterns have common meaning --- i.e. physical distance is assumed to represent psychological distance; and positions higher in a column, greater value (Kuethe, 1962; Levinger and Gunner, 1967; Ziller, 1969).

Esteem. Esteem was measured by the selection of a circle to represent the self higher rather than lower in a column of circles representing children. The child is presented with an 8 1/2 x 11 sheet of paper which has five equal-size circles arranged in a column and he is told: "These circles stand for children. You pick one to be you". To score, the circles are numbered from bottom to top, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The top position represents the highest self esteem. The sum of the scores on two presentations total the final esteem score.

The split-half reliability has been reported as .77 for school beginners. Validity studies indicate: "Less mature" preschool children showed lower self esteem; Negro school beginners showed lower self esteem than white in two rural south samples; later born school beginners indicated lower self esteem than first borns. Similar results are reported using adult subjects (Ziller, 1969).

Identification. Identification with the same-sex and opposite-sex parent was measured in separate items by the selection of a circle

for the self close to a circle representing the appropriate parent in a row of circles. A horizontal display of 6 circles on an 8 1/2 x 11 sheet of paper was presented to the child. A cardboard doll figure "parent" was located on the circle to the extreme left. The task required the child to pick any of the other circles to represent him(her) self. The child was told: "There is your father (mother). You pick a circle to be you." Distance in units from the parent is the measure of the identification intensity. A score from one to five was given, five being associated with a choice of the circle adjacent to the parent. Each parent identification item was presented twice, the score for identification with each parent was the sum of the scores from the two presentations using that parent as the focal concern.

Split-half reliabilities with disadvantaged school beginners, fifth graders and high school students ranged from .71 to .95. Validity studies with children indicate: Disadvantaged school beginners had less identification with father and greater identification with mother than a control group. Girls locate self closer to mother than do boys; boys locate self closer to father than do girls. Father-absent children show lesser identification with father. Institutionalized behavior problem children in comparison with a control group are less identified with a friend. Children rated as "shy with teacher" showed less identification with teacher (Ziller, 1969).

Power. In the measures of power, a higher position on the vertical plane is assumed to represent greater power. In this task, the child was given an 8 1/2 x 11 sheet of paper on which was a circle rep-

resenting the self, flanked by a semicircle of five other circles of the same size. The child was told: "This circle stands for you. You pick a circle to be your father (mother)." The choices permitted for the parent to be placed: (1) directly below the self, (2) diagonally below, (3) horizontal to the self, (4) diagonally above, (5) directly above the self. The responses were scored from one to five with a higher score associated with a higher position, indicating greater power for that parent in relation to the child, lessened power for the child. The scores with respect to each parent were analyzed separately. Each parent item was presented twice, the total power score for that parent being the sum of the two presentations.

Split-half reliabilities reported thus far range from .65 to .77. Validity studies indicate: Power of the child raises with grade in school. Teacher is placed in a significantly higher power position than friend. Father is placed higher than teacher or principal. Ninth graders with better study habits placed the other persons in higher positions (Ziller, 1969; Long, Ziller, and Bankes, 1970; Long, Henderson, and Ziller, 1967b).

Sex Role Measures

The measures, described below, used to assess each aspect of sex role were those previously used by Biller (1968) (see Appendix C).

Orientation. An extensively modified version of Brown's IT Scale was used to assess sex role orientation. The projective nature of this task, the child making choices for "IT" from among socially sex-typed items, makes it a technique for assessing sex role orientation. It

was a fantasy game procedure which was designed so that the child would specify the behavior of an ambiguous looking child in a series of "pretend" situations in terms of male and female alternates involving people, wearing apparel, and tasks. In order to make the "IT" figure more sexually neutral in appearance, following a suggestion by Hall (Brown, 1962), only the face was presented rather than the whole body.

The "IT" face was presented to the child as "a child playing a make-believe game - a game where it can be anybody in the whole world - a game where this child can make believe or do anything." Choices were between pictures of nine contrasting sex-typed items. Pictures of the following pairs of items were included: Indian Chief and Indian Princess; men's clothes and women's clothes; materials for sewing and for making a model; lipstick and cosmetics, and a razor; men's shoes and women's shoes; big boys playing and big girls playing; building tools and cooking utensils; a man and a woman.

A point was given for each response indicating a same-sex appropriate choice, and 2 additional points were given if the child, when questioned, gave the picture child a same-sex name and said that this child would become the same-sex parent.

Since it seems a necessary factor in the development of a sex role orientation, the child's ability to discriminate between the categories of male and female was also assessed. The child was asked to identify, by pointing, the sex-relatedness of the items previously presented.

Preference. Biller's (1968) toy preference task and game preference task were used to assess sex role preference.

1. Toy preference measure: Pictures of five masculine and five feminine toys that significantly differentiated between boys and girls were presented to the child in a paired comparison method. The child was shown each picture and told what it was, and then shown two toys at a time and asked to "point to the toy you would like to play with the most." Each toy was presented twice for a total of ten paired comparison trials. The child was scored one point for each same-sex appropriate toy he chose.

2. Game preference measure: Pictures of the same two children (same sex as the subject) playing five masculine and five feminine games were shown to the child, two games at a time in a paired comparison method for a total of ten trials. The child was asked to "point to the game you would like to play the most." These games (see Appendix C for the toys and games) had been found to be highly sex-typed by Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith (1964). The child was scored one point for each same-sex appropriate game he chose.

The total Preference index was obtained by summing the total scores for the two measures.

Adoption. Sex role adoption was evaluated by teacher ratings on a multidimensional scale. The scale was an expanded version of a rating scale developed by Biller (1968). The scale included 20 items, ten items relating to masculine behavior (aggressiveness, competitiveness, activity directed toward physical prowess, independence, mastery of the environment, etc.) and ten items relating to feminine behavior (helping behaviors, affection and tenderness, dependence, cleanliness

and neatness, politeness, etc.). Items were presented with concrete behavior references. Children were rated on each of the 20 items in terms of a five point scale: very frequently, frequently, sometimes, seldom, very seldom. Teachers were not told about the scoring system. For the ten items assumed to characterize high same-sex Adoption, four points were given when the item was checked as being of very high frequency. On the other hand, for the ten items assumed to reflect opposite-sex Adoption, no points were given when the item was checked as one with very high frequency, four points were given when the item was checked as never occuring.

Teachers were chosen as raters because of their broad knowledge of the children's behavior. Especially in the nursery schools utilized, teachers had observational knowledge of the children in a wide variety of free play and social situations. There were ratings for each child from two of his(her) teachers. The total Adoption score was obtained by averaging the child's ratings from the two teachers.

Measurement of Parent-Child Relationship Variables

Three general classes of parent-child relationship variables were focused on as possible antecedents of the child's self-social concepts in this study: child's perception of parental dominance, parental warmth-hostility, parental encouragement of self-reliance and independence.

Perceived Dominance. The children were asked about their perceptions of the patterns of parental dominance in a rather direct manner,

using a questionnaire developed and used by Freedheim (1960) and Biller (1968). The questions were designed to assess the degree of parental dominance in the areas of decision-making, limit-setting, competence, and nurturance. There were a total of 20 items; five for each of the areas of dominance. Each child was asked these questions in the same random order. (See Appendix D for the specific items and the order of presentation.)

Freedheim's (1960) method was followed in computing scores for each area of dominance. If the child designated the father in answering the question, four points were scored. If the child said that father does it most, three points were scored, and if he says that both parents do it equally, two points were scored. If the child says that mother alone does it, one point was scored.

Since there were five questions in each area of dominance, scores were computed for each area and a total perceived dominance index was obtained by summing the area scores. Based upon the scoring method, higher scores reflected perceived father dominance while lower scores reflected perceived mother dominance.

Warmth-Hostility. An assessment of the degree of warmth expressed by each parent for his (her) child was obtained from a structured family interview task (SFIT) (described below). Ratings of parental warmth were done on the basis of the way the parent spoke about the child during the parent interview. A rating scale of warmth-hostility developed and tested by Hetherington and Frankie (1967) was used. The mother and father were separately rated on this 6-point warmth-hostil-

ity scale ranging from 1-- extremely warm, nurturant and affectionate; concerned with and enjoys the child as a person; understanding and empathic-- to 6-- extreme hostility; rejection or punitiveness toward the child; little sympathy or attempt to understand the child's behavior. Ratings of parental warmth were done on the basis of both the individual sessions and the joint interview of the SFIT (see Appendix E for the complete scale).

Encouragement. An assessment of the degree to which the father and the mother encourage independent, self-reliant behaviors by their child was obtained by a direct interview procedure. Each parent was asked separately and then together how he (she) (they) would respond to various situations, such as their child wrestling, playing in the mud, being pushed by another child, and climbing a tree (see Appendix F).

The responses given by each parent separately and their joint responses when together were scored in terms of the degree to which the parent(s) encourage independent, self-reliant behavior; strong encouragement = 3 points, acceptance = 2 points, interference, but not stopping the behavior = 1 point, discouragement of the behavior = 0 points. The above procedure is a slightly modified version of a procedure used by Biller (1968).

Measurement of Parent-Parent Relationship Variables

The measures of parental dominance and conflict were obtained using a modified version of a structured family interaction task (SFIT) de-

veloped by Farina (1960, 1963). Each parent was read 12 hypothetical problem situations involving child behavior and asked how he (she) would typically respond to such a situation if he (she) were alone, not with the spouse. Both parents were then brought together and asked to arrive at an agreed-upon solution for these same situations, pretending that they are together in this situation involving their child. Both the individual and joint interviews were tape recorded, with the parents' consent, for scoring at a later time to determine the parent dominance and conflict patterns (see Appendix G for the parent letters and specific interview procedure).

Interview Dominance. The index for parental dominance was comprised of five of the measures previously used by Farina (1958, 1960), Hetherington and Frankie (1967), and Biller (1968), which were: (1) Speaks first-- the number of times the father spoke first in the 12 situations. (2) Speaks most-- the number of times the father spoke most in the 12 situations (timed with a stopwatch). (3) Passive acceptance of spouse's solution-- the number of times in the 12 situations the mother passively accepted the father's solution, minus the number of times the father passively accepted the mother's solution. (4) Speaks last-- the number of times the father spoke last in the 12 situations. (5) Yielding-- each parent's solution to each situation was scored on a continuum ranging from acceptance to severe punishment of the child's behavior. For example: acceptance (1 point), scolding, verbal reproof (6 points), deprivation (10 points), physical punishment (14 points), explicit creation of fear (17 points). Yielding was

defined as the number of times in the 12 situations the mother moved more toward acceptance (in the joint interview) of the father's solution than he moved toward acceptance of her solution.

A total parental dominance index was obtained by scoring one point for each incidence of father dominance and adding the speaks first, speaks most, passive acceptance, speaks last and yielding scores. In this manner, higher scores indicated father dominance, lower scores showed mother dominance.

Conflict. The index for parental conflict was comprised of five of the measures previously used by Farina (1960) and Hetherington and Frankie (1967), which were: (1) Disagreements and aggressions-- the number of times that either parent disagreed with or was aggressive toward the other. (2) Failure to agree-- the number of times in the 12 situations no mutual solution was agreed upon. (3) Simultaneous speech-- the number of seconds during which both parents spoke concurrently. (4) Interruptions-- the number of times either parent interrupted the other. (5) Verbal activity-- the total time (in seconds) spoken by the parents during the joint interview.

In the past, most researchers have converted each area score into a "z" score and combined them into a single conflict index. However, following a suggestion by Gassner and Murray (1969) the first two measures will be combined to form a measure of "hostile interaction" or "conflict", while the latter three will form a "positive give-and-take discussion" index. Families which scored high on the "hostile interaction" measure were classified as high-conflict homes; those scoring

low were classified as low-conflict homes. Similarly, families which scored high on the "positive give-and-take discussion" measure were classified as high-discussion homes; those scoring low were classified as low-discussion homes.

The structured family interaction task (SFIT) has been found to provide a meaningful measure of parental relations by various investigators: Farina, 1960, 1963; Cicchetti and Farina, 1967; Hetherington, 1965; Hetherington and Frankie, 1967; Biller, 1968; Gassner and Murray, 1969; and Becker and Iwakami, 1969.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Results concerning the self-other orientation measures are presented first. Data pertaining to the measures of the hypothesized antecedent variables and sex role are considered next. The findings relevant to the relationships between the hypothesized antecedent variables, sex role aspects and the self-other orientation variables are then presented.

The main statistical techniques used in this investigation were single-classification analyses of variance (Veldman, 1967), t tests, and product-moment correlations. Most of the analyses were done using the Digital Equipment Corporation PDP-6 computer at the University of Pennsylvania Medical School Computer Facility.

The greatest weight in considering the relationships between the independent and dependent variables was put on the results of the analyses of variance. For the most part, it was predicted that the higher levels of the independent variable (e.g. warmth, encouragement, etc.) would be associated with the higher levels of the self-other orientation variables. When feasible, based upon the number of subjects under consideration, the independent variables were trichotomized into high, medium and low levels. Otherwise, the remaining variables were classified into two levels, high and low. Generally, it was predicted that the high levels would be associated with a higher degree of esteem, power, and identification than the medium and/or low levels (see Appendix A for the intercorrelations among all variables).

Measures of Self-Other Orientation

Esteem. Scores for esteem (ES) ranged from 2 to 10 for both boys and girls. The mean score for the boys was 4.66 with an SD of 2.06; for the girls, the mean score was 6.08 with an SD of 2.08. Consistent with previous studies (Reese, 1961), girls had a higher level of esteem than the boys ($t = 3.0$, $p = .01$). Split-half reliabilities for the Es measure were .46 for the boys and .31 for the girls.

Identification. Identification scores with relation to father and mother were computed separately. The mean of the father identification (IF) scores was 6.48 with an SD of 2.64 for the boys; for the girls, the mean score was 7.22 with an SD of 2.34. The mean of the mother identification (IM) scores was 6.41 with an SD of 2.67 for the boys; for the girls, the mean score was 7.08 with an SD of 2.24. The split-half reliabilities for IF and IM were .67 and .60 respectively for the boys, and .37 and .22 respectively for the girls.

Overall, the girls demonstrated a greater tendency to identify with father ($t = 1.3$, $p = .20$) and with mother ($t = 1.2$, $p = .25$) than did boys. Both sexes, however, generally identified equally with both parents. That is, boys did not identify with father more than with mother ($t = .01$, n.s.); nor did girls identify more with mother than with father ($t = -.25$, n.s.).

Power. The power scores with reference to each parent were computed separately. The mean of the father power (PF) scores was 5.74 with an SD of 2.20 for the boys, and a mean of 5.34 with an SD of 2.49 for the girls. The mean of the mother power (PM) scores for the boys

was 6.28 with an SD of 2.41; for the girls, the mean was 5.77 with an SD of 2.56. The split-half reliabilities for PF and PM were .25 and .49 respectively for the boys, and .39 and .32 respectively for the girls.

Overall, the subjects, regardless of sex, tended to perceive themselves as generally equal in power to the parents (since a score of 6.00 indicates equal power, scores above 6.00 indicate greater power for the parent, while scores below 6.00 indicate greater power for the child). Boys did not attribute greater power to themselves in relation to father than did girls ($t = .62$, n.s.); nor did girls attribute greater power to themselves in relation to mother than did the boys ($t = .88$, n.s.). And for both sexes, there was generally the same degree of power attributed to both parents. That is, boys did not perceive of themselves as more powerful with father than with mother ($t = 1.0$, n.s.); nor did girls see themselves as more powerful with mother than with father ($t = -.70$, n.s.).

Relationships among the self-other orientations. As can be seen in Table 1, the three self-other orientations are somewhat related, yet largely independent of one another. The identification measures were significantly related to one another but not to the esteem and power measures. Likewise, the power measures were significantly related to each other but not to the esteem and identification measures.

Measures of Parent-Child Relationship Variables

Perceived Dominance. Means, SD's and the intercorrelations among

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among the Self / Other Orientation Measures

	Boys (N=39)		Girls (N=35)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Power-Father (PF)	5.74	2.20	5.34	2.49	t= .62, n.s.
Power-Mother (PM)	6.28	2.41	5.77	2.56	t= .88, n.s.
Identification-Father (IF)	6.48	2.64	7.22	2.34	t=1.3, p1.20
Identification-Mother (IM)	6.41	2.67	7.08	2.24	t=1.2, p1.25
Esteem (ES)	4.66	2.06	6.08	2.08	t=3.0, p1.01

	PM	IF	IM	ES	PM	IF	IM	ES
PF	.31	-.13	.02	.20	.37	.15	.14	.24
PM	1.00	.01	.01	.03	1.00	.09	.16	.21
IF		1.00	.72	-.06		1.00	.35	.01
IM			1.00	.02			1.00	.15

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among the Perceived Dominance Measures

	Boys (N=39)		Girls (N=35)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Nurturance	10.82	5.68	10.94	5.38	t= .09, n.s.
Limit Setting	7.97	5.84	6.22	4.68	t=1.4, p1.20
Competence	13.89	5.18	14.80	4.22	t= .82, n.s.
Decision Making	13.07	4.63	12.20	4.26	t= .83, n.s.
Total Dominance	45.74	15.87	45.60	11.76	t= .08, n.s.

	NURT	LS	COMP	DM	NURT	LS	COMP	DM
LS	.40	1.00			.01	1.00		
COMP	.46	.39	1.00		.06	-.28	1.00	
DM	.29	.40	.43	1.00	-.07	.09	.25	1.00
TOT.D	.74	.70	.76	.69	.57	.20	.46	.57

$r \geq .26$, p=.10
$r \geq .31$, p=.31
$r \geq .40$, p=.01

$r \geq .27$, p=.10
$r \geq .33$, p=.05
$r \geq .43$, p=.01

the areas of perceived dominance and the total perceived dominance score are presented in Table 2. The direction of these results is similar to that reported by Biller (1968). Both sexes perceived the father to be more competent, dominant in decision making, and more totally dominant than the mother. The mother was seen as more limit setting than the father by both sexes, especially by the girls ($t = 1.4$, $p = .20$). Neither parent was seen as more nurturant than the other. Although it is generally considered that mother is the more affectionately nurturant parent, it is important to note that the questions used in this study involved instrumental, rather than affectionate, nurturance.

The patterns of correlations revealed some surprising differences between the boys and the girls. Among the boys, the four areas of perceived dominance were significantly related to one another and to the total dominance score, as would be expected. Among the girls, however, only nurturance, competence and decision making were significantly related to the total dominance score, while the relations among the four sub-areas were minimal. Interestingly, there was a negative relation between limit setting and competence ($r = -.28$, $p = .10$). For the girls, then, father's dominance seems primarily defined in terms of competence, mother's dominance in terms of limit setting; while total perceived dominance appears to be a cumulative effect of the different areas.

For further purposes of analysis, distributions of the areas of perceived dominance were dichotomized or trichotomized into as nearly

equal numbers as possible. With regard to each area and the total score, the low level represented perceived mother dominance while the high level represented a high degree of perceived father dominance. The distribution characteristics of the levels of these perceived dominance variables appear in Table 3.

Parental Warmth-Hostility. Warmth-hostility scores ranged from 1 (extremely warm) to 6 (extremely hostile) with a father warmth mean of 2.73 and an SD of .77 for the boys, and a mean of 2.78 with an SD of .53 for the girls. The mother warmth scores had a mean of 2.80 with an SD of .96 for the boys and a mean of 2.89 with an SD of 1.04 for the girls.

Father warmth scores and mother warmth scores were correlated at .59 ($p = <.01$) for the boys and at -.24 (p = n.s.) for the girls. The distribution characteristics of the levels of warmth-hostility are presented in Table 4.

Parental Encouragement of Independence, Self-Reliance. Three separate encouragement scores were derived from the interviews: father encouragement, mother encouragement and joint encouragement. Father encouragement scores had a mean of 8.42 with an SD of 2.24 for boys and a mean of 9.47 with an SD of 2.77 for the girls. Mother encouragement scores had a mean of 8.30 with an SD of 2.41 for the boys and a mean of 8.63 with an SD of 2.38 for the girls. The joint encouragement scores had a mean of 8.76 with an SD of 3.71 for the boys and a mean of 9.31 with an SD of 1.94 for the girls. It would appear that jointly, the parents of girls were in close agreement as to encouraging or not en-

Table 3

Distribution Characteristics of the Levels of Perception of Father Dominance Variables

		Boys (N=39)		Girls (N=35	
	Level	N	Range	N	Range
Nurturance	Low	11	0 to 7	10	2 to 7
	Medium	16	8 to 12	14	8 to 12
	High	12	13 to 20	11	13 to 20
Limit Setting	Low	15	0 to 4	9	0 to 4
	Medium	12	5 to 11	17	4 to 8
	High	12	12 to 20	9	9 to 16
Competence	Low	16	0 to 10	12	4 to 12
	Medium	14	11 to 16	14	14 to 17
	High	9	17 to 20	9	18 to 20
Decision Making	Low	8	0 to 9	11	1 to 9
	Medium	16	10 to 12	11	11 to 15
	High	15	16 to 20	13	16 to 20
Perceived Father Dominance	Low	15	1 to 40	13	24 to 40
	Medium	12	41 to 49	13	43 to 49
	High	12	51 to 80	9	50 to 68

Table 4

Distribution Characteristics of the Levels of Warmth-Hostility

		Boys (N=26)		Girls (N=19)	
	Level	N	Range	N	Range
Father Warmth	High	11	1 to 2	5	1 to 2
	Low	15	3 to 6	14	3 to 6
Mother Warmth	High	12	1 to 2	7	1 to 2
	Low	14	3 to 6	12	3 to 6

Table 5

Distribution Characteristics of the Levels of Parental Encouragement Variables

		Boys (N=26)		Girls (N=19)	
	Level	N	Range	N	Range
Father (FE)	Low	13	4 to 8	11	4 to 10
	High	13	9 to 14	8	11 to 14
Mother (ME)	Low	12	4 to 8	10	3 to 8
	High	14	9 to 12	9	9 to 12
Joint (JE)	Low	15	4 to 9	10	6 to 9
	High	11	10 to 13	9	10 to 13

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among the Parental Encouragement Variables

	Boys (N=26)		Girls (N=19)	
	FE	ME	FE	ME
ME	.31		.01	
JE	.62*	.73*	.26	.70*

* = p1.01

couraging independence; while the parents of the boys demonstrated much variance as to the encouragement problem.

The distribution characteristics of the levels of the encouragement variables used in further analyses and the intercorrelations among these variables are shown in Tables 5 and 6 respectively.

Measures of Sex Role Aspects

Orientation. The sex role orientation scores ranged from 0 to 11 for the boys and from 3 to 12 for the girls. The mean score for the boys was 7.30 with an SD of 2.22; for the girls, the mean score was 8.17 with an SD of 2.33. The girls scored significantly higher than the boys on this measure ($t = 1.6$, $p = < .10$).

Preference. Toy preference and game preference scores were correlated .56 ($p = .01$) for the boys and .44 ($p = < .01$) for the girls. Total sex role preference scores ranged from 9 to 20 for the boys and from 6 to 20 for the girls. The mean score for the boys was 15.20 with an SD of 3.22; for the girls, the mean score was 13.37 with an SD of 4.12. The boys scored significantly higher than the girls on this measure ($t = 2.1$, $p = < .05$).

Adoption. Two teachers' ratings were available for all of the subjects. The total sex role adoption score was obtained by averaging the total scores from the two teachers. The correlation between the total scores obtained from the two teachers' ratings was .71 ($p = < .01$) for the boys and .55 ($p = .01$) for the girls. Total sex role adoption scores ranged from 25 to 63 for the boys and from 32 to 62 for the girls.

The mean score for the boys was 43.00 with an SD of 8.99; for the girls, the mean score was 46.74 with an SD of 7.12. On this measure, the girls scored significantly higher than the boys ($t = 1.8$, $p = .10$).

The distribution characteristics of the levels of the three sex role aspects and their intercorrelations are presented in Tables 7 and 8 respectively. In general, the relationships among these variables were positive but not at a significant level. Previous studies (Biller and Borstelman, 1965; Biller, 1968) have found small but significant positive relationships among these variables.

Measures of Parent-Parent Relationship Variables

Interview Dominance. The means, SD's, and intercorrelations among the five indices comprising the interview dominance variable are presented in Table 9. The mean interview dominance score for the boys was 18.34 with an SD of 7.94; for the girls, the mean score was 15.84 with an SD of 9.03. There were no significant differences between the mean scores of the boys and the mean scores of the girls on any of the measurements comprising the interview dominance index, nor between the total scores - t's ranged from .10 to 1.1.

Intercorrelations among the indices of interview dominance were generally moderate, though usually significant. All but one of the individual indices was significantly related to the total interview dominance score. For the boys, total interview dominance was more highly related to perceived nurturance ($r = .35$, $p = .10$) than to the total perceived dominance score. In contrast, for the girls, interview

Table 7

Distribution Characteristics of the Levels of Sex Role Aspects

		Boys (N=39)		Girls (N=35)	
	Level	N	Range	N	Range
Orientation (O)	Low	11	0 to 6	13	3 to 7
	Medium	16	7 to 8	11	8 to 9
	High	12	9 to 11	11	10 to 12
Preference (P)	Low	13	9 to 13	12	6 to 11
	Medium	11	14 to 16	14	12 to 15
	High	15	17 to 20	9	17 to 20
Adoption (A)	Low	14	25 to 37	10	32 to 41
	Medium	12	39 to 45	15	43 to 51
	High	13	46 to 63	10	53 to 62

Table 8

Intercorrelations Among the Sex Role Aspects

	Boys (N=39)		Girls (N=35)	
	O	P	O	P
P	.02		.20	
A	.18	.10	.26	-.25

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among the Indices of Interview Dominance

	Boys (N=26)		Girls (N=19)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Father Speaks First (SF)	5.15	2.75	5.57	2.94
Father Speaks Last (SL)	6.88	2.50	6.05	2.61
Father Speaks Most (SM)	6.11	1.90	5.94	1.92
Passive Acceptance Score (PA)	.42	1.74	-.47	1.86
Yield Score (Y)	.34	3.12	-.31	2.18
Total Father Dominance (FD)	18.34	7.94	15.84	9.03

	SL	SM	PA	Y	FD	SL	SM	PA	Y	FD
SF	-.54	.20	.01	.03	.18					
SL		.44	.20	.19	.45	-.44	.49	.21	.28	.38
SM			.47	.22	.73		.18	.06	.15	.38
PA				.60	.69			.50	.48	.68
Y					.63				.68	.50
FD										.51
	$r \geq .32$, $p=.10$					$r \geq .37$, $p=.10$				
	$r \geq .38$, $p=.05$					$r \geq .45$, $p=.05$				
	$r \geq .50$, $p=.01$					$r \geq .57$, $p=.01$				

Table 10

Distribution Characteristics of the Levels of Interview Father Dominance

	Boys (N=26)		Girls (N=19)	
Level	N	Range	N	Range
Low	12	-3 to 17	10	4 to 17
High	14	19 to 31	9	18 to 32

dominance was more highly related to total perceived dominance ($r = .38$, $p = < .10$) than to any of the specific areas.

Distribution characteristics of the two levels of interview dominance used in further analyses are presented in Table 10. As noted previously, higher scores indicated father dominance, lower scores indicated mother dominance.

Discussion and Conflict. The distribution characteristics of the three measures comprising the discussion index and the two measures comprising the conflict index are shown in Table 11. Only the total time spoken was significantly different between the boys and the girls ($t = 1.6$, $p = < .10$).

Intercorrelations among the indices of discussion and of conflict (Table 12) reveal that, in general, the discussion indices are more related to one another than to the conflict indices. Similarly, the conflict indices show a generally greater relationship to one another than to the discussion indices.

The total index for discussion and the index for conflict were derived by converting their respective area scores into "z" scores and combining these. Distribution characteristics of the two levels of discussion and of conflict are presented in Table 13.

Perceived Dominance and Self-Other Orientation

It was predicted that the degree to which boys perceive their fathers as dominant would be positively related to the boy's esteem and father identification, and that at least a moderate degree of mother

Table 11

Distribution Characteristics of the Interview Discussion and Conflict Indices

	Boys (N=26)			Girls (N=19)		
	Range	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD
Discussion						
Simultaneous Speech	1 to 26	8.00	5.84	2 to 31	9.31	7.00
Interruptions	3 to 19	10.50	4.55	5 to 27	11.26	6.89
Total Time	198 to 966	484.96	207.09	228 to 1200	619.89	295.50
Conflict						
Disagreements & Aggressions	0 to 8	3.07	2.53	0 to 8	3.00	2.59
No Agreement	0 to 4	.61	.29	0 to 3	.80	.75

Table 12

Intercorrelations Among the Interview Discussion and Conflict Indices

	Boys (N=26)					Girls (N=19)			
Variable	No.	2	3	4	5	2	3	4	5
Simultaneous Speech	1	.63	.48	.44	.35	.73	.64	.01	.04
Interruptions	2		.38	.24	.02		.66	.34	.13
Total Time	3			.37	.10			.12	-.16
Disagreements	4				.39				.36
No Agreement	5								
		$r \geq .32$, $p=.10$				$r \geq .37$, $p=.10$			
		$r \geq .38$, $p=.05$				$r \geq .45$, $p=.05$			
		$r \geq .50$, $p=.01$				$r \geq .57$, $p=.01$			

Table 13

Distribution Characteristics of the Levels of Discussion and Conflict Variables

	Boys (N=26)		Girls (N=19)	
		Discussion		
Level	N	Range (z scores)	N	Range (z scores)
Low	13	-3.9 to -.63	11	-2.6 to -.12
High	13	.05 to 4.8	8	.45 to 6.8
		Conflict		
Low	13	-3.2 to -.10	10	-2.1 to -.11
High	13	.10 to 6.6.	9	.27 to 2.7

dominance was necessary for girls to identify closely with their mothers. As Table 14 shows, these hypotheses received mixed, generally weak support. For boys, perceived father dominance was related only to PF, while there was a tendency for equal parental dominance to be related to higher ES scores. For girls, perceived mother dominance was positively related to IM, to ES and to PF. Contrary to prediction, therefore, the perception of the same-sex parent as dominant appeared to be related more strongly to the self-other orientations of the girls rather than the boys.

Analyses of the areas of perceived dominance revealed slightly similar results. Somewhat parallel results were found for nurturance (Table 15), which seemed to be that area of perceived dominance most influential in terms of enhancing self concept. For boys, identification with the same or opposite-sex parent was positively related to that parent's degree of perceived nurturance; also, PF was positively related to perceived nurturance. For girls, maternal nurturance was related to greater PM, IM and ES.

Perceived limit setting of the same-sex parent (Table 16) was significantly related only to PM for the boys and to ES and PF for the girls. Relationships were even less evident for competence (Table 17) and decision making (Table 18). Perception of the same-sex parent as competent was related only to PF and to PM for the girls; whereas perceived decision making was significantly related only to IM for the girls.

Generally, the data suggests that maternal dominance, at least the girls' perception of maternal dominance, appears to be a more important

Table 14

Comparison of Levels of Perceived Dominance
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=39)				Girls (N=35)			
Dependent Variable	Perceived Dominance	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	15	5.00	1.95	.15	20	5.96	2.84	.09
	Medium	12	5.75						
	High	12	6.66			15	4.53		
PM	Low	15	5.80	.51	n.s.	13	6.61	1.19	n.s.
	Medium	12	6.75			13	5.07		
	High	12	6.41			9	5.55		
IF	Low	15	6.60	.12	n.s.	13	7.61	.27	n.s.
	Medium	12	6.16			13	7.07		
	High	12	6.66			9	6.88		
IM	Low	15	6.60	.19	n.s.	13	8.07	2.53	.09
	Medium	12	6.00			13	7.00		
	High	12	6.58			9	6.15		
ES	Low	15	4.40	1.13	n.s.	20	6.72	5.12	.02
	Medium	12	5.41						
	High	12	4.25			15	5.24		

Table 15

Comparison of Levels of Nurturance
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

Dependent Variable	Nurturance	Boys (N=39) N	Mean	F	P	Girls (N=35) N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	11	4.81	2.08	.13	10	6.20	1.00	n.s.
	Medium	16	5.68			14	4.71		
	High	12	6.66			11	5.36		
PM	Low	11	6.63	.62	n.s.	15	6.81	4.51	.03
	Medium	16	5.75						
	High	12	6.66			20	5.06		
IF	Low	11	6.72	2.63	.08	10	6.70	.39	n.s.
	Medium	16	5.43			14	7.28		
	High	12	7.66			11	7.63		
IM	Low	11	7.54	1.69	.19	15	7.84	2.70	.10
	Medium	16	5.62						
	High	12	6.41			20	6.51		
ES	Low	11	4.90	.09	n.s.	10	6.71	1.69	.19
	Medium	16	4.56			14	6.20		
	High	12	4.58			11	5.18		

Table 16

Comparison of Levels of Limit Setting
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

Dependent Variable	Limit Setting	Boys (N=39) N	Mean	F	P	Girls (N=35) N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	15	5.33	1.01	n.s.	9	5.88	2.52	.09
	Medium	12	5.50			17	5.88		
	High	12	6.50			9	3.77		
PM	Low	15	5.33	2.62	.08	9	5.33	.22	n.s.
	Medium	12	7.41			17	6.05		
	High	12	6.33			9	5.66		
IF	Low	15	6.53	.47	n.s.	9	6.66	.37	n.s.
	Medium	12	7.00			17	7.52		
	High	12	5.91			9	7.22		
IM	Low	15	6.00	1.21	n.s.	9	6.77	.39	n.s.
	Medium	12	7.41			17	6.94		
	High	12	5.91			9	7.66		
ES	Low	15	4.33	.33	n.s.	19	6.74	4.33	.04
	Medium	12	5.00						
	High	12	4.75			16	5.32		

Table 17

Comparison of Levels of Competence
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

Dependent Variable	Competence	Boys (N=39) N	Mean	F	P	Girls (N=35) N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	16	5.93			14	6.16		
	Medium	14	5.64	.10	n.s.			2.45	.12
	High	9	5.55			21	4.87		
PM	Low	16	6.87			14	6.68		
	Medium	14	5.50	1.21	n.s.			2.75	.10
	High	9	6.44			21	5.10		
IF	Low	16	6.25			12	8.08		
	Medium	14	6.85	.20	n.s.	14	6.78	1.19	n.s.
	High	9	6.33			9	6.77		
IM	Low	16	5.87			12	7.91		
	Medium	14	6.78	.51	n.s.	14	6.71	1.24	n.s.
	High	9	6.77			9	6.55		
ES	Low	16	4.25			12	6.50		
	Medium	14	5.28	.97	n.s.	14	5.64	.53	n.s.
	High	9	4.44			9	6.22		

Table 18

Comparison of Levels of Decision Making
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

Dependent Variable	Decision Making	Boys (N=39) N	Mean	F	P	Girls (N=35 N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	8	6.25	1.03	n.s.	11	5.72	.85	n.s.
	Medium	16	4.93			11	5.81		
	High	15	5.93			13	4.61		
PM	Low	8	6.12	.64	n.s.	11	5.81	.94	n.s.
	Medium	16	5.75			11	6.54		
	High	15	6.80			13	5.07		
IF	Low	8	6.12	.01	n.s.	20	7.86	3.49	.07
	Medium	16	6.31						
	High	15	6.33			15	6.43		
IM	Low	8	5.25	.62	n.s.	11	6.81	.45	n.s.
	Medium	16	6.31			11	7.63		
	High	15	6.66			13	6.84		
ES	Low	8	5.37	.66	n.s.	11	6.63	1.27	n.s.
	Medium	16	4.56			11	5.27		
	High	15	4.26			13	6.30		

antecedent of a girl's self-other orientations than was originally hypothesized, and that paternal dominance for boys seems more defined by father's instrumental nurturance than by his control over the boy.

Parental Warmth and Self-Other Orientations

The general prediction was that there would be a positive relationship between degree of parental warmth and self concept, particularly between parental warmth and girls' esteem and identification. As can be seen from Table 19, father's warmth was positively related only to IF for girl's and negatively related to PM for boys. Yet there was a strong trend indicating a positive relationship between father's warmth and ES and IF for the boys, as well as IM for the girls. Mother warmth (Table 20) was positively related only to the boys' ES and the girls' IM, yet negatively related to the girls' IF. In sum, parental warmth appeared to be most salient for the boys' esteem and for the girls' parent identification.

Parental Encouragement and Self-Other Orientations

It was predicted that parental encouragement of independence, self-reliance would be strongly related to the child's self concept, especially his or her esteem. Contrary to prediction, however, neither father encouragement (Table 21), mother encouragement (Table 22) nor joint encouragement (Table 23) was related to boys' or girls' ES. The only significant relationship derived was between father encouragement and IF for the girls.

Table 19

Comparison of Levels of Father Warmth
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls (N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Father Warmth	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	High	11	6.09	.10	n.s.	5	6.20	.57	n.s.
	Low	15	5.80			14	5.20		
PM	High	11	6.00	3.04	.09	5	6.00	.05	n.s.
	Low	15	7.46			14	5.46		
IF	High	11	7.22	1.89	.17	5	8.80	6.73	.01
	Low	15	6.40			14	5.85		
IM	High	11	7.18	.36	n.s.	5	8.40	1.75	.20
	Low	15	6.60			14	6.85		
ES	High	11	5.53	2.05	.16	5	6.80	.75	n.s.
	Low	15	4.45			14	6.00		

Table 20

Comparison of Levels of Mother Warmth
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls (N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Mother Warmth	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	High	12	5.75	.13	n.s.	7	5.00	.39	n.s.
	Low	14	6.07			12	5.75		
PM	High	12	6.50	.54	n.s.	7	6.42	.67	n.s.
	Low	14	7.14			12	5.33		
IF	High	12	6.91	.01	n.s.	7	5.42	2.82	.10
	Low	14	7.00			12	7.33		
IM	High	12	6.91	.01	n.s.	7	8.28	2.40	.13
	Low	14	6.78			12	6.66		
ES	High	12	5.64	2.77	.10	7	6.14	.01	n.s.
	Low	14	4.41			12	6.25		

Table 21

Comparison of Levels of Father Encouragement
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls (N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Father Encouragement	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	13	5.84	.03	n.s.	11	5.09	.62	n.s.
	High	13	6.00			8	6.00		
PM	Low	13	7.46	2.11	.15	11	5.18	1.03	n.s.
	High	13	6.23			8	6.50		
IF	Low	13	6.61	.49	n.s.	11	5.63	5.08	.03
	High	13	7.30			8	8.00		
IM	Low	13	7.00	.10	n.s.	11	7.09	.14	n.s.
	High	13	6.69			8	7.50		
ES	Low	13	4.76	.64	n.s.	11	6.09	.11	n.s.
	High	13	5.38			8	6.37		

Table 22

Comparison of Levels of Mother Encouragement in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls (N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Mother Encouragement	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	12	5.41	1.18	n.s.	10	5.10	.47	n.s.
	High	14	6.35			9	5.88		
PM	Low	12	6.25	1.67	.20	10	5.10	1.11	n.s.
	High	14	7.35			9	6.44		
IF	Low	12	6.75	.15	n.s.	10	6.60	.01	n.s.
	High	14	7.14			9	6.66		
IM	Low	12	6.33	1.01	n.s.	10	7.10	.10	n.s.
	High	14	7.28			9	7.44		
ES	Low	12	5.00	.03	n.s.	10	6.00	.29	n.s.
	High	14	5.14			9	6.44		

Table 23

Comparison of Levels of Joint Encouragement
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls(N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Joint Encouragement	N	MEAN	F	P	N	MEAN	F	P
PF	Low	15	5.66	.46	n.s.	10	5.10	.47	n.s.
	High	11	6.27			9	5.88		
PM	Low	15	6.46	1.05	n.s.	10	5.00	1.52	n.s.
	High	11	7.36			9	6.55		
IF	Low	15	6.80	.14	n.s.	10	6.40	.17	n.s.
	High	11	7.18			9	6.88		
IM	Low	15	6.80	.01	n.s.	10	7.00	.26	n.s.
	High	11	6.90			9	7.55		
ES	Low	15	5.20	.13	n.s.	10	6.50	.56	n.s.
	High	11	4.90			9	5.88		

Sex Role and Self-Other Orientations

The general prediction was that sex role adoption and sex role orientation would be related to self concept, especially as regards the boys. As predicted, a high level of sex role orientation was associated with high ES for the boys (Table 24). Other findings revealed a generally negative relationship between orientation and PM for the boys; while, also regarding the boys, a medium level of orientation was associated with strong IF. Sex role adoption (Table 25), as predicted, was negatively related to the girls' ES. However, no other relations were found. Sex role preference (Table 26) showed no significant relations with the self-other orientations; although there was a trend showing preference to be positively related to the girls' ES, while a medium level of preference was associated with the boys' IF.

Interview Dominance and Self-Other Orientations

It was predicted that interview dominance patterns and results would be generally parallel to the perceived dominance analyses. Contrary to prediction, however, the only significant finding was a relationship between maternal dominance and PM for the boys (Table 27). On the other hand, there were some indications showing that ES was higher for those subjects whose same-sex parent was the more dominant. In general, as was the case with regards to the perceived dominance results, parental dominance, especially for boys, did not appear to be as important, by itself, an antecedent variable of self-other orientations or self concept as originally hypothesized.

Table 24

Comparison of Levels of Sex Role Orientation
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=39)				Girls (N=35)			
Dependent Variable	Orientation	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	11	6.18	.30	n.s.	13	6.07	.92	n.s.
	Medium	16	5.50			11	5.09		
	High	12	5.66			11	4.72		
PM	Low	11	7.63	3.08	.05	13	5.38	.23	n.s.
	Medium	16	5.37			11	6.09		
	High	12	6.25			11	5.90		
IF	Low	11	5.72	3.84	.02	13	7.30	1.04	n.s.
	Medium	16	7.81			11	7.90		
	High	12	5.41			11	6.45		
IM	Low	11	6.00	.39	n.s.	13	6.92	1.18	n.s.
	Medium	16	6.87			11	7.90		
	High	12	6.16			11	6.45		
ES	Low	11	4.81	2.50	.09	13	6.07	.01	n.s.
	Medium	16	3.87			11	6.18		
	High	12	5.58			11	6.00		

Table 25

Comparison of Levels of Sex Role Adoption
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

Dependent Variable	Adoption	Boys (N=39) N	Mean	F	P	Girls (N=35) N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	14	6.35	.82	n.s.	10	5.90	.34	n.s.
	Medium	12	5.33			15	5.20		
	High	13	5.46			10	5.00		
PM	Low	14	6.78	.44	n.s.	10	6.80	1.19	n.s.
	Medium	12	6.00			15	5.53		
	High	13	6.00			10	5.10		
IF	Low	14	6.92	.66	n.s.	10	7.40	.07	n.s.
	Medium	12	5.75			15	7.26		
	High	13	6.69			10	7.00		
IM	Low	14	6.57	.19	n.s.	10	7.50	.23	n.s.
	Medium	12	6.00			15	6.86		
	High	13	6.61			10	7.00		
ES	Low	14	4.42	.48	n.s.	10	7.40	3.01	.06
	Medium	12	5.16			15	5.53		
	High	13	4.46			10	5.60		

Table 26

Comparison of Levels of Sex Role Preference
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=39)				Girls (N=35)			
Dependent Variable	Preference	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	13	5.76	1.62	n.s.	12	4.58	.84	n.s.
	Medium	11	6.63			14	5.64		
	High	15	5.06			9	5.88		
PM	Low	13	6.69	.32	n.s.	12	4.91	1.50	n.s.
	Medium	11	6.27			14	6.64		
	High	15	5.93			9	5.55		
IF	Low	13	6.23	2.12	.13	12	7.41	.07	n.s.
	Medium	11	7.81			14	7.21		
	High	15	5.73			9	7.00		
IM	Low	13	6.38	1.15	n.s.	12	6.83	.74	n.s.
	Medium	11	7.36			14	6.78		
	High	15	5.73			9	7.88		
ES	Low	13	4.69	.25	n.s.	12	5.83	1.48	n.s.
	Medium	11	5.00			14	5.64		
	High	15	4.40			9	7.11		

Table 27

Comparison of Levels of Interview Dominance in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=39)				Girls (N=35)			
Dependent Variable	Interview Dominance	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	12	5.33	1.63	n.s.	10	5.50	.01	n.s.
	High	14	6.42			9	5.44		
PM	Low	12	8.00	7.76	.01	10	5.90	.06	n.s.
	High	14	5.85			9	5.55		
IF	Low	12	7.25	.29	n.s.	10	6.20	.61	n.s.
	High	14	6.71			9	7.11		
IM	Low	12	7.08	.20	n.s.	10	6.70	1.31	n.s.
	High	14	6.64			9	7.88		
ES	Low	12	4.58	1.47	n.s.	10	6.60	1.04	n.s.
	High	14	5.50			9	5.77		

Parent-Parent Discussion, Conflict and Self-Other Orientations

The general prediction was that families high in discussion and families low in conflict would be positively related to self concept, high esteem and close parent identification. Contrary to these predictions, there were no significant relationships between parent discussion (Table 28) and the self-other orientations. With regards to parent conflict (Table 29), there was only a single negative relationship with the girls' IM.

Table 28

Comparison of Levels of Parent Discussion
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls (N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Parent Discussion	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	13	5.76	.12	n.s.	11	5.18	.35	n.s.
	High	13	6.07			8	5.87		
PM	Low	13	6.92	.03	n.s.	11	6.18	.65	n.s.
	High	13	6.76			8	5.12		
IF	Low	13	7.30	.50	n.s.	11	6.27	.52	n.s.
	High	13	6.61			8	7.12		
IM	Low	13	7.07	.23	n.s.	11	7.18	.03	n.s.
	High	13	6.15			8	7.37		
ES	Low	13	5.46	1.03	n.s.	11	6.00	.36	n.s.
	High	13	4.69			8	6.50		

Table 29

Comparison of Levels of Parent Conflict
in Relation to Self-Other Orientations

		Boys (N=26)				Girls (N=19)			
Dependent Variable	Parent Conflict	N	Mean	F	P	N	Mean	F	P
PF	Low	13	6.30	.78	n.s.	10	4.90	1.20	n.s.
	High	13	5.53			9	6.11		
PM	Low	13	7.23	.78	n.s.	10	5.30	.50	n.s.
	High	13	6.46			9	6.22		
IF	Low	13	6.46	1.06	n.s.	10	6.00	1.40	n.s.
	High	13	7.46			9	7.33		
IM	Low	13	7.07	.23	n.s.	10	6.40	3.43	.07
	High	13	6.61			9	8.22		
ES	Low	13	5.23	.15	n.s.	10	6.20	.01	n.s.
	High	13	4.92			9	6.22		

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Although the results of this investigation failed to confirm many of the specific predictions and there was a general absence of strong and consistent relationships, the data tends to support a multidimensional view of self concept. The salient variables in early self concept development were seen to vary greatly, according to the specific self-other orientation under consideration.

The results indicate that the self-other orientations of esteem, identification and power are positively related, yet largely independent of one another. It is suggested, therefore, that self-other orientations are indeed components of a broader psychological domain, i.e. the self concept. Each self-other orientation appears to have it's own salient antecedent variables which vary according to the child's sex.

In brief, the salient variables associated with each self-other orientation of the preschool children, according to their sex, are as follows:

1. High esteem (ES) for the boys was associated with mother and and father warmth, high sex role orientation, and interview father dominance. High esteem for the girls was associated with the perception of mother dominance, limit setting and nurturance, low sex role adoption, and interview mother dominance.

2. The boys' identification with father (IF) was associated with perceived father dominance, father warmth, and only medium sex role orien-

tation and sex role preference. The girls' identification with mother (IM) was associated with perception of mother dominance and nurturance, mother warmth, father warmth, and parent conflict.

3. The boys' identification with mother (IM) was associated with perceived mother dominance, and maternal encouragement of independence, self-reliance. The girls' identification with father (IF) was associated with perceived mother decision making, father warmth, father encouragement of independence, self-reliance, low mother warmth, and parent conflict.

4. Father's power with relation to the boys (PF) was associated with the perception of father dominance and nurturance, and interview father dominance. Mother's power with relation to the girls (PM) was associated with the perception of mother nurturance and competence, maternal and joint encouragement of independence, self-reliance, and low sex role adoption.

5. Mother's power with relation to the boys (PM) was associated with interview mother dominance, low sex role orientation, low father warmth, low father encouragement and high mother encouragement of independence, self-reliance. Father's power with relation to the girls (PF) was associated with the perception of mother dominance, limit setting and competence, and parent conflict.

By and large, the above pattern of relationships suggests that there are many salient variables in the overall self concept development of preschool age children and that the hypothesized antecedent variables did not influence all self-other orientations to the same ex-

tent. No one necessary and sufficient antecedent variable would seem to exist in the child rearing paradigm which could be identified as the prime determinant of the child's conception of himself in relation to others.

Of particular interest was the degree to which perceived mother dominance, for the girls, was associated with the self-other orientations and the degree to which the girls appeared to be sensitive to parent conflict. While it was originally hypothesized that variables related to parental dominance would be more salient for the boys, the data suggests that the perception of the same-sex parent as at least moderately dominant, nurturant etc. facilitates esteem, parent identification and parent power equally well for both sexes. One possible explanation for the high salience of maternal dominance indicated by the girls might possibly be due to the particular measure of dominance utilized in this investigation. In the past, studies of parent-child characteristics in personality and social development have generally defined parent dominance in terms of observed parent-parent interactions. This study, however, utilized both an interview dominance measure and a perceived dominance measure. Perhaps, therefore, it is not the actual maternal dominance which is important, but the girls' perception of her mother's role. For, as the present data indicates, interview maternal dominance was related only to the girls' esteem while perceived maternal dominance was related to all three self-other orientations. Similarly for boys, perceived paternal dominance appeared more salient than interview paternal dominance.

The several relationships between the self-other orientations and opposite-sex parent characteristics suggest that early self concept development is favorably enhanced by both parents in interaction. It seems that, while the same-sex parent exerts slightly greater influence during these early years, both parents are important in the personality development of the preschool child. The precise nature of this parent interaction influence, however, remains tentative since the present results are rather speculative and inconclusive.

Contrary to prediction, there was no evidence that parental encouragement of independence, self-reliance is related to the development of higher degrees of esteem. It is possible that a preschool child's esteem with relation to other children is not affected by direct parental attempts to develop behaviors characteristic of high esteem children. Yet findings from much previous research (Coopersmith, 1967; McCandless, 1967) can be interpreted as suggesting important relationships between independence training and the development of esteem. Likewise, with regard to the parent-parent relationship variables, the original hypotheses were not confirmed to the slighest extent. Yet there is a mass of research pointing to the importance of family dynamics in personality and social development.

A further controversy exists with respect to the self-other orientation variable of power. It was generally predicted that higher degrees of power for the child would be associated with many of the familial variables. However, the data reveal that parent power, not child power, was the more frequent direction. With the possible exception

of PM for the boys, parent power was associated with the dominance, nurturance, etc. variables. As such, the power measure appeared to be reflecting the child's "respect" for that parent, not the perception of inferiority with respect to the parent. A similar conclusion regarding the use of this measure with adolescents was also hypothesized by Long, Ziller and Henderson (1968). In brief, then, the validity of this measure as an index of power relations remains tentative.

On the positive side, as predicted, it was found that sex role orientation was highly associated with the boys' esteem and sex role adoption was negatively associated with the girls' esteem. This data appears to lend credence to the belief that our society places greater value upon masculinity in contrast to femininity. Since the value of maleness is so strongly impressed upon the youngest of boys, the basic feeling of genderness becomes an integral part of their self image, their esteem. Similarly, since masculine behaviors are generally more highly valued than feminine behaviors, it appears that young girls quickly learn that to be highly feminine (behaviorally) brings about few rewards. Consequently, in view of our society's allowance of greater latitude in feminine development, girls can achieve high esteem while still exhibiting masculine behaviors. For girls, then, sex role preference and sex role orientation appear to more accurately reflect femininity per se.

In retrospect, the results of this investigation must be considered as speculative and generally disappointing. As previously noted, extensive and varied data analyses were carried out, but there was an

absence of strong and consistent relationships. Many of the obtained relationships were not in the predicted direction, nor were hypotheses concerning parent encouragement and the parent-parent relationship variables verified to even the slightest extent. Perhaps, each component of the early self concept is rather autonomous and dependent upon specific, sex-related, antecedent variables, as this study seemed to suggest. However, other evidence supporting this conclusion is seriously lacking.

It must therefore be concluded that the apparent unreliability of many of the measures with the three and four year old subjects was a major factor for the lack of significant findings. Particularly disappointing were the rather low reliabilities of the self-other orientation measures, especially in view of Long and Henderson's (1968) report of split-half reliabilities in the .70 range with disadvantaged preschool children. Perhaps the assumption of topological representations of the self in relation to significant others (self-social constructs) is not valid for children of this age whose social experiences are rather minimal. The present study would certainly support that conclusion. While the face validity of the self-other orientation measures seems obvious to adults, a child's interpretation of these symbolic arrangements might be rather egocentric. This view would appear to be substantiated by the Piagetan notion of the "preoperational" preschool age child.

In terms of other methodological issues, the use of a perceived dominance measure and an interview dominance measure appeared to be an

improvement over past research, as the former measure focuses more clearly upon the immediate relationship between the child's perception of his parents and his perception of himself as a social being. Similarly, a multiaspect conception of masculinity and femininity appears to be an improvement over research focusing on but a single dimension of sex role. For the present data did suggest that not all aspects of sex role are equally as important in terms of early personality and social development.

Further research in the area of early self concept development should include self-other orientation measures which are more concrete and behavioral. Perhaps observations and ratings of child-parent and child-peer interactions could be analyzed in hopes of defining more precise antecedent variables and ways of developing more reliable measures of components of the child's self concept. Second, a wider range of children should be studied. Particularly, social class differences should be investigated and analyzed. Third, a greater variety of factors in the family considered to be important in childhood personality and therefore possibly influential as antecedents of specific self-other orientations should be studied. Finally, longitudinal investigations of the developmental process of self-other orientations should be carried out. Especially important would be an analysis of the degree to which self-other orientations as determined by parent-child relations are modifiable by later peer relations.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Table 30

Intercorrelations Among Variables
(Boys N=26)

Variable	No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
PF	1														
IM	2	-17													
PM	3	18	-17												
SE	4	18	-04	-22											
IF	5	-25	58	-05	-21										
Nurt.	6	49	-29	04	-01	-07									
L.S.	7	24	-10	10	-02	-36	29								
Comp.	8	09	-05	-13	28	-11	32	43							
Dec.M.	9	22	13	09	-31	-06	23	42	30						
Perc.Dom.	10	39	-13	08	-02	-23	68	78	69	66					
Orient.	11	-13	15	-31	32	-07	-13	-15	28	-15	-08				
Pref.	12	-13	-20	-35	19	-14	25	23	41	10	35	11			
Adopt.	13	-06	-02	-29	-26	-13	-07	13	-11	-06	-02	16	09		
Fa. Encour.	14	-19	16	-05	-02	12	-19	02	-16	-39	-23	-02	07	20	
Mo. Encour.	15	22	02	06	15	01	10	06	-05	-39	-06	-05	-13	-05	31
Joint Enc.	16	07	-15	18	08	-05	-06	25	-08	-45	-05	-01	-19	09	62
Fa. Warm	17	-01	01	35	13	-16	-17	16	10	-06	01	17	-10	-10	-11
Mo. Warm	18	15	01	24	28	10	01	-15	-12	-12	-13	-01	-09	-11	02
Fa. Spk. 1st	19	02	-14	-06	-06	-01	12	-31	-10	-08	-13	-07	01	16	-01
Fa. Spk. Lst.	20	18	-01	-13	26	-01	17	07	09	26	21	-27	16	-36	-09
Fa. Spk. Mst.	21	02	-03	-45	07	-01	19	-07	25	44	25	-07	08	-17	-18
Pass. Acc.	22	28	-16	-37	28	-32	-02	06	23	17	14	14	-01	-10	07
Yielding	23	43	09	-39	27	-16	30	06	40	08	29	33	-01	05	-07
Interv. Dom.	24	34	-16	-41	20	-20	35	-05	15	28	25	-06	-05	-05	-03
Diss.&Aggr.	25	-13	-20	03	15	-26	-31	12	-04	-11	-12	-16	-01	29	46
No Agree.	26	-13	07	-26	-20	09	09	-24	-09	17	-03	-12	24	01	17
Simul. Spch.	27	01	-30	-09	-08	-43	06	31	07	06	19	-31	26	29	-01
Interrupt.	28	11	-20	-13	06	-27	16	29	37	11	32	01	01	-01	-19
Total Time Sp.	29	-13	-49	01	-36	-23	12	03	-08	04	01	-13	-10	37	09

Table 30 (continued)

No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
16	73														
17	-20	11													
18	-10	09	59												
19	44	13	-32	01											
20	-45	-42	-13	-01	-54										
21	-12	-28	-34	-15	19	43									
22	10	08	-15	-04	-01	20	47								
23	12	-03	-29	-16	-03	19	22	60							
24	-01	-13	-41	-04	18	45	73	69	63						
25	-01	24	04	05	03	-07	-10	-04	-28	-06					
26	03	-06	-12	05	51	-17	24	01	-17	17	24				
27	05	01	-18	-24	28	-21	-07	03	-15	01	44	39			
28	-13	-09	03	-08	-06	01	13	28	12	22	23	02	63		
29	-02	03	-18	-13	25	-34	-02	01	-09	06	37	10	48	38	

Note: Decimals have been omitted.

r≥32, p=.10
r≥38, p=.05
r≥50, p=.01

Appendix A

Table 31

Intercorrelations Among Variables
(Girls N=19)

Variable	No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
PF	1														
IM	2	34													
PM	3	45	26												
SE	4	18	34	17											
IF	5	45	29	19	27										
Nurt.	6	-21	-21	-47	-23	05									
L.S.	7	-36	-05	01	-44	01	10								
Comp.	8	-28	-19	-28	-42	-41	04	-09							
Dec.M.	9	-03	-01	01	-02	02	04	14	37						
Perc.Dom.	10	-41	-20	32	-49	-11	57	56	50	63					
Orient.	11	-17	04	-08	14	02	-16	13	03	18	07				
Pref.	12	50	25	09	08	14	-22	-20	16	28	-03	17			
Adopt.	13	-12	11	-10	15	-17	-33	-15	17	-12	-21	46	-28		
Fa. Encour.	14	-11	04	25	25	45	-08	15	-38	-23	-20	16	-04	03	
Mo. Encour.	15	-01	06	01	-19	-10	-34	-05	07	-32	-29	29	03	28	01
Joint Enc.	16	14	16	35	-02	01	-45	02	-04	-37	-37	04	-12	32	26
Fa. Warm	17	-13	40	-03	-24	-43	22	01	39	09	29	-09	12	-07	-11
Mo. Warm	18	-06	28	-33	-13	13	34	-29	07	-28	-06	15	-33	14	-13
Fa. Spk. 1st	19	10	15	-08	-46	17	-14	27	16	15	18	27	07	35	-14
Fa. Spk. Lst.	20	-08	26	15	-26	-43	20	09	16	06	23	-44	-01	-29	-08
Fa. Spk. Mst.	21	01	19	08	-25	-14	03	11	32	52	40	25	01	27	-33
Pass. Acc.	22	10	53	18	10	09	-03	19	-31	05	-01	-12	-29	21	03
Yielding	23	-21	38	14	-19	-07	-11	36	-01	25	22	-14	-01	-07	05
Interv. Dom.	24	-09	15	13	-30	01	16	30	08	17	38	-17	-22	05	-24
Diss.&Aggr.	25	11	28	-20	01	-04	04	-34	35	08	02	10	-08	42	-54
No Agree.	26	37	28	35	11	46	-38	-13	-30	18	-29	18	06	07	12
Simul. Spch.	27	21	23	05	17	38	-03	01	-31	-28	-24	20	-09	31	28
Interrupt.	28	24	26	01	-14	21	-11	-18	13	-16	-15	-02	-12	40	-01
Total Time Sp.	29	06	-02	01	-11	12	-09	-11	-07	-51	-22	03	-50	39	12

Table 31 (continued)

No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
16	69														
17	02	-19													
18	-03	-11	-23												
19	35	13	-09	07											
20	-54	-28	28	-16	-44										
21	-31	-24	-11	18	49	17									
22	-26	13	-55	-08	21	06	50								
23	-17	02	-39	-25	27	14	48	68							
24	-42	-30	-22	-11	38	37	68	49	51						
25	20	-01	07	31	43	-36	38	06	-13	25					
26	28	22	-37	03	53	-42	28	26	21	20	36				
27	27	26	-04	-16	14	-54	-43	-05	-42	-43	01	04			
28	32	26	03	01	28	-35	-14	-05	-35	-21	34	13	72		
29	23	21	01	22	09	-38	-27	-02	-36	-17	12	-15	64	66	

Note: Decimals have been omitted.

r=37, p=.10
r=45, p=.05
r=57, p=.01

Appendix B

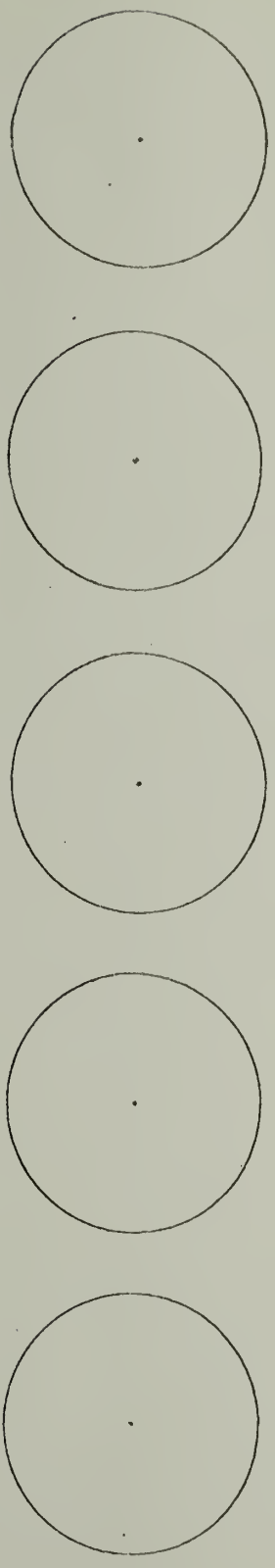
SELF-OTHER ORIENTATION MEASURES

Instructions: Self-Concept Test

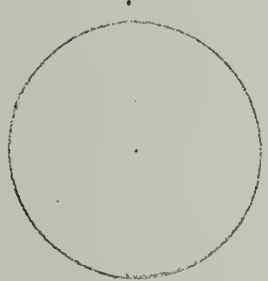
P= Power
I= Identification
SE= Self Esteem

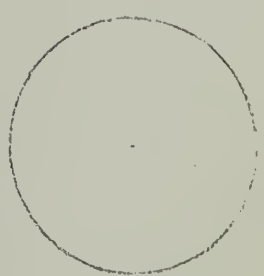
F= Father
M= Mother
B= Boy
G= Girl

1. PF1 - This circle stands for you. You pick a circle to be your father.
2. IM1 - There is your mother. You pick a circle to be you.
3. PM1 - This circle stands for you. You pick a circle to be your mother.
4. SE1 - These circles stand for children. You pick one to be you.
5. IB1 - There is a boy. You pick a circle to be you.
6. IF1 - There is your father. You pick a circle to be you.
7. IG1 - There is a girl. You pick a circle to be you.
8. PM2 - This circle stands for you. You pick a circle to be your mother.
9. IB2 - There is a boy. You pick a circle to be you.
10. IG2 - There is a girl. You pick a circle to be you.
11. PF2 - This circle stands for you. You pick a circle to be your father.
12. SE2 - These circles stand for children. You pick one to be you.
13. IM2 - There is your mother. You pick a circle to be you.
14. IF2 - There is your father. You pick a circle to be you.



Parent figure placed on above circle.





Appendix C .

SEX ROLE MEASURES

Sex Role Orientation

Administration. " Now we are going to play a pretend game, a make-believe game. Here is a picture of a child. This child is playing a make-believe game -- in this game the child can be anybody in the whole world -- this is a game where this child can make believe or do anything. "

a) Here are some big Indians. Which big Indian is this child going to be?

b) Here are some big people's clothes. Which big person's clothes is this child going to were?

c) Here are some things big people do. Here are things to use in making a handkerchief and things to use in making a model airplane. Which is this child going to do?

d) Here are some things big people use. Here is something for shaving and here is some lipstick. Which is this child going to use?

e) Here are some big children playing. Which children is this child going to play with?

f) Here are some more things big people do. Here are some things to use in washing and ironing, and some tools to use in fixing things that are broken. Which is this child going to do?

g) Here are some big people's shoes. Which big person's shoes is this child going to wear?

h) Here are some more things big people do. Here are some things to bake and cook with, and things to build with. Which is this child going to do?

i) Here are some pictures of big people. Which is the child going to be?

j) What will the child do when it grows up? (What kind of work will he do?)

k) Will the child be a mommy or a daddy?

Sex Role Preference

" Today I want to find out what kind of toys and games you like best." Toy choice: Here are some pictures of toys that children like to play with." (The picture of each toy is held up and the child is told what it is.)"I'll show you two toys at a time and you point to the toy you would to play with the most. "

Comparisons (same order and position):

1.	automobile	doll carriage
2.	doll carriage	soldiers
3.	crib	tractor
4.	doll	gun
5.	train	handbag
6.	soldiers	dishes
7.	gun	carriage
8.	handbag	automobile
9.	tractor	doll
10.	crib	train

Game choice: " Now I'm going to show you some games that children like to play. Look, here are some pictures of the same children playing some games. " (Each game is held up and the child is told what is.) " I'll show you two games at a time and you point to the game you would like to play the most. "

1.	football	jumprope
2.	hopscotch	archery
3.	dancing	basketball
4.	baseball	jacks
5.	blocks	house
6.	jumprope,	baseball
7.	archery	jumprope
8.	basketball	hopscotch
9.	jacks	blocks
10.	house	football

Biller

Rater _____

RATING SCALE

Would you please describe _____ in terms of the following behaviors. Please put a penciled check mark in the appropriate place indicating the frequency of a particular behavior. Consider how characteristic such behavior is for the child, how often you have seen the child engage in such behavior. Try to consider each behavior independently.

After you have filled out a rating scale for each child in your class, check to see if you have taken into account individual differences among the children. As much as possible the children should be distributed on particular behaviors across the different frequency categories. You may, for instance, find that you have rated a particular behavior as very frequent for a large number of children but have rated it as very seldom occurring for only a few. Some of the children probably do express a particular behavior very frequently, others frequently, others occasionally, others seldom, and others very seldom. Please make any necessary changes in your original ratings.

	Very Frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Very Seldom
1. Active and energetic [vigorous and plays hard, busy and on the move]					
2. Engages others in helping him (her) [seeks and gets others to show him (her) how to do things, looks for and receives advice]					
3. Pleases others [cooperative and conforming, does what others want]					
4. Stands up for his (her) rights [acts assertively, doesn't react timidly or shyly]					

	Very Frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Very Seldom
5. Builds and fixes things [puts things together, figures out how to put broken things in working order]					
6. Plays teacher [helps teacher and tries to enforce rules, imitates teacher's behavior]					
7. Daring and adventuresome [attempts physical feats, takes chances in jumping and climbing]					
8. Expresses affection [hugs and kisses other children, tender and loving with others]					
9. Responsive to authority [gives quick obedience, does not talk back or question adults]					
10. Sensitive to others' feelings [treats children in terms of their needs, not critical of others]					
11. Shows strength and physical prowess [picks up heavy things, challenges others to feats of strength and speed]					
12. Careful in appearance [takes time to keep clean and neat, calls attention to his (her) appearance]					

	Very Frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Very Seldom
13. Takes care of other children [soothes other children when they are hurt, helps others with their problems]					
14. Makes own decisions [not dependent on others in deciding what to do, decisive in choices]					
15. Competent in dealing with environment [understands how things work, persistent and curious in finding solutions to problems]					
16. Physically aggressive [pushes or hits back if another child hits or pushes him (her), uses force if he can't get something]					
17. Displays manners [treats others very politely, acts courteous and well-behaved]					
18. Participates in sports and active games [plays strenuous games, takes part in rough horseplay]					
19. Keeps things neat and orderly [does housekeeping tasks, puts things away]					

	Very Frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Very Seldom
20. Leads other children [initiates and organizes play activities, influences others' decisions]					

Appendix D

Measurement of Perception of Parental Dominance

" I want to ask you some questions about your home and how things are in your family. "

1. Who give you the most gifts and toys? (N)
2. Who tells you what time you must be in the house? (LS)
3. Suppose you're moving to a new house -- who picks the place to live? (DM)
4. Who do you like to be with the most? (N)
5. Who would know how to get into your house if your family were locked out? (C)
6. Who says which TV program your family watches? (DM)
7. Who tells you what time to go to bed? (LS)
8. If a light bulb in your house goes out, who puts in a new one? (C)
9. Who give you the most spending money? (N)
10. Who knows the most about animals (C)
11. Who takes you the most places you want to go? (N)
12. Who tells you to clean things up when you've made a mess? (LS)
13. Who is the boss at home? (DM)
14. If one of your toys is broken, who fixes it? (C)
15. Who says where your family goes in the automobile? (DM)
16. Who do you have the most fun with? (N)
17. Who tells you how to behave at meals? (LS)
18. If there is a leaky faucet, who fixes it? (C)
19. Who punishes you the most? (LS)
20. If your family needs an automobile, who picks it out? (DM)

Warmth-Hostility Scale

In part, Becker (1964) defines parental warmth with variables such as: accepting, affectionate, approving, understanding, child-centered, frequent use of praise, positive responses to dependency behavior, high use of explanations. A warm parent is concerned and interested in his (her) child, and is empathic and understanding to the child's point of view. The parent's enjoyment of the child as a person is evident. The response to the child is more apt to be in terms of child's benefit (to teach him right, to be sure he is well or healthy) rather than because of the parents' self-orientation, comfort, ego-gratification, etc.Much of the warmth rating is perforce tonal in quality, although part of the overall attitude will come through in the ways the parent addresses the child and the ways the parent speaks about the child.

A hostile parent is primarily self-oriented and mainly concerned with his own satisfactions, comfort, and convenience in relations with the child. He does not understand, empathize, or sympathize with the child's point of views. Parental hostility is associated with abruptness, irritation, annoyance, sarcasm, and anger toward the child. It is also associated with use of harsh often inappropriately severe punishment techniques, frequent use of criticism, little positive reinforcement for the child's behavior, and rejection of affection or dependency overtures by the child.

1. Extremely warm, nurturant, and affectionate- frequent use of praise, encouragement and reinforcement. Clearly proud of the child, concerned with and enjoys the child as a person, understanding and empathic. Never overtly hostile.

2. Moderately warm- parent manifests the qualities in 1 less frequently and directly than above. Often is warm, nurturant, affectionate, understanding, and positively reinforcing. Seldom overtly hostile.

3. Slightly warm- occasionally is warm, supportive, understanding and reinforcing. Sometimes shows mild harshness in mode of expression, mild annoyance or irritation in dealing with the child. Little evidence of strong warmth or hostility.

4. Slightly hostile- infrequently is warm, supportive, understanding or reinforcing. Sometimes is harsh, self-oriented, critical, sarcastic, or shows mild anger.

5. Moderately hostile- seldom is warm, supportive, understanding or reinforcing. Usually is self-oriented or lacking in understanding and sympathy. Often harsh, critical, sarcastic, punitive or rejecting. Considerable annoyance or anger apparent in relations with the child.

6. Extreme hostility- rejection or punitiveness toward the child, completely self-oriented, little sympathy or attempt to understand the child's behavior, always interprets the child's behavior in the worst light. No evidence of warmth, nurturance, affection or positive reinforcement. Shows strong anger in relations with the child.

Appendix F

Encouragement Questions
(part of family interview, see Appendix G)

1. In the backyard,(child's name) has just picked up a very heavy object.

2. _____ is out in the backyard wrestling with another boy/girl.

3. _____ is building a castle in the mud with his/her playclothes on.

4. You see that _____ is climbing a 10 foot high tree.

5. Another child _____'s size pushed him/her down several times on purpose.

6. _____ is crying because he/she just fell of his/her bicycle or tricycle.

Appendix G

PARENT LETTER AND INTERVIEW PROCEDURE

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Amherst 01003

EPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
Nursery School Research Project

Dear Mr. and Mrs.

During the past few months, we have been conducting a child study project in cooperation with local nursery schools. We are studying children's play activities. We hope some of our findings will be of help in planning nursery school programs. Information about the child's experiences at home is also of interest to us in this project.

The present phase of the Nursery School Research Project will include interviews with mothers and fathers. We hope to get a sample of mother's and father's reactions to the play activities of preschool age children. We hope that you will be able to assist us in this interview.

You will be contacted shortly by Don Flammer, the member of the research team who will be doing the interviewing. The interview will be conducted at the convenience of you and your husband at your home if you prefer. If a babysitter is necessary, we will be glad to furnish one.

Some questions are for mothers, some for fathers. The total time of the interview will be about one hour, about 20 minutes will be devoted to interviewing each parent separately and a similiar amount of time for interviewing them together.

There will be no "right" or "wrong" answers to the interview questions, and your answers will be kept strictly confidential. Questions will not pertain to your personal life.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Donald P. Flammer

Donald P. Flammer, M.S.

Henry Biller

Henry Biller, Ph.D.
Co-Directors
Nursery School Research Project

PARENT INTERVIEW

We are interested in knowing how a father/mother handles situations that come up when the wife/husband is not around. I am going to read some situations that ____ might or might not really have been involved in. In any case, imagine that this situation has arisen and that your spouse is not around and you must handle the problem yourself. Please tell me what you would most likely say and/or do in each situation.

1. ____ loses ____ temper while playing with a toy and intentionally breaks it.

2. You have friends over in the evening. ____ keeps getting out of bed to see what's going on.

3. ____ has a friend over to play. The friend wants to play with one of ____'s favorite toys but ____ won't let the friend do so.

4. You have gone out of your way to buy something nice for ____ and then ____ throws it aside and says ____ doesn't like it.

5. ____ has been asked several times to tidy up ____ room. You find the room still a mess and ____ watching TV.

6. You have taken ____ out to dinner in a restaurant as a special treat. ____ is behaving in a generally noisy, ill-mannered way although you have warned ____ to quiet down.

7. In the backyard, ____ has just picked up a very heavy object.

8. ____ is out in the backyard wrestling with another boy/girl.

9. ____ is building a castle in the mud with ____ playclothes on.

10. You see that ____ is climbing a 10 foot high tree.

11. Another child ____'s size pushed ____ down several times on purpose.

12. ____ is crying because ____ just fell off ____ bicycle or tricycle.

You have talked about how you would handle these various situations if you were alone; now I would like you to go through these same situations, and have you discuss them and come to some agreement as to how you would handle the problem if you were both there. Again, imagine the situation arising, you are both present and must deal with the situation. I want you to continue the discussion until you can come to some agreement on how you would handle the situation if you were together, then say "agreed" and we will go on to the next situation